SERVICE ENGAGEMENT OF THE CONTEMPORARY UNIVERSITY: TOWARDS A NEW UNDERSTANDING THROUGH A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MIDDLESEX UNIVERSITY [UK] AND THE UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES [GHANA]

A Thesis submitted to Middlesex University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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October 2006

ABSTRACT

University institutions are becoming fluid with different missions and functions. It is argued that most universities mission statements involve teaching, research and service. While the teaching and research missions are clearly defined and situated within certain areas of the university activities, service is less clear and ambiguous, yet assuming an increasingly important and central slogan in many higher education institutions' publicity or 'marketing' strategies. The concept of service is understood differently in the university context. While it is understood in particular contexts as one of the functions of higher education apart from teaching and research; in others it is viewed as an 'inverted donut' supporting the core activities of teaching and research; administrative; customer service; civic duty or collegial support. This study examines the service concept through a comparative study of Middlesex University (UK) and University for Development Studies (Ghana) with the aim of understanding the place of service in the university, whether it is a function in addition to the teaching and research functions or not. It is also aimed at reinterpreting the concept within the current higher education delivery.

Designed as a qualitative study using documentary sources, semi structured interviews and artefacts to generate data, two interrelated conceptual perspectives informed this research: the moderate constructivist and critical pluralistic perspectives that served as guides and a window through which the service concept is understood. An important methodological characteristic of the study is the use of two interrelated approaches: direct and indirect. The direct concerned understanding the views (direct opinion) of individual academics through interviews, and the indirect involved the use of interviews, national and institutional policy documents and artefacts to gain general information about the cases for further analyses. In addition, it is a comparative study, which uses data from three interrelated levels: macro, intermediary and micro; representing general, national/regional/local, and institutional sources respectively. The study concludes that service is a broad concept that covers the core activities of teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities rather than occupies a place as a function. Based on the evidence, a coherent explanation and interpretation of the concept linking it to higher education contexts, philosophies, shades of services, and suggested service university models has been presented. Despite this, the concept remains complex, its interpretation influenced by contexts, and difficult to generalise due to the acknowledgeably different and contrasting dimensions of interpretation ranging from Western/non-Western, Direct/Indirect and Public/Private to Rhetoric/non-Rhetoric dimensions. However, the question of what service is in the university context is likely to remain a debatable issue.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express by profound gratitude to all who contributed in various ways to make this study a success. My thanks go to Middlesex University for offering me a comprehensive funding package and a favourable environment that supported this thesis. I am thankful to my supervisors: Professors Trevor Corner and Peter Newby for their immense support. Professor Trevor Corner, also my Director of Studies, offered critical and valuable suggestions and his expertise, instrumentality and role in identifying appropriate platforms for a critique of the study no doubt strengthened not only the research process but its efficacy. Professor Peter Newby's enthusiasm and critical view of the research process and his principle of providing only high-quality work and no less had a strong impact on my work. He provided up-to-date information on research activities related to my study, which not only widened by scope in the area but led to an important publication.

Many thanks also go to the following for taking their precious time to read through the manuscript and offering valuable suggestions: Dr James Ogunleye, Research Manager of the EMILIA Project; Dr Mehmetali Dikerdem, a Resource Fellow at the National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership (NCWBLP); Chris Griffiths, a PhD student working under the EMILIA Project; Nantogmah Danaa, a PhD student at the School of Health and Social Sciences. I am grateful to all my colleagues in the Research Student/Tutors (RST) group who offered useful suggestions during the 'Learning Circle' meetings and to Charmain Alleyne (Research Administrator) and Odili Adele for the general support in the course of the study.

I am sincerely thankful to Mrs Abdulai Salmu; Abdulai Anamzooya; Mr Abudulai Abubakari (Action), Northern Regional Finance Officer, Ghana Postal Services; Mr Hamdan, Teacher; Mr Ahmed Iddrisu Tijani, Mr Abdulai M. Abdul-Rahman, , and the staff of the UDS for their extensive help in the data generation at the University for Development Studies, Ghana. Thanks also go to Professor William K. Cummings of The George Washington University's Elliot School of International Affairs for his guidance in the literature search. Finally, I wish to express my love and gratitude to all my family and friends in Ghana, UK, Norway, Australia, US and Kenya for their encouragement during the course of this research.

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October 2006

London, UK

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PART ONE

This part is the first of the three parts that make up this thesis. It covers the first four chapters: the introduction, the conceptual frame, the methodology and an analysis of contemporary views to understand the place of service. It may be seen as the foundation of the study that defines its parameters and direction.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Our greatest intellectual adventures often occur within us–not in the restless search for new facts and new objects on the earth or in the stars, but from the need to expunge old prejudices and build new conceptual structures. No hunt can have sweeter reward, a more admirable goal, than the excitement of thoroughly revised understanding

(S. J. Gould, 1995: 11)

1.1 INTRODUCTION

University institutions are becoming fluid with different missions and functions. It is argued that most universities mission statements involve teaching, research and service (Cummings, 1998). While the teaching and research missions are clearly defined and situated within certain areas of the university activities, service is less clear and ambiguous (Berberet, 1999), yet assuming an increasingly important and central slogan in many higher education institutions' publicity or 'marketing' strategies. Universities make several claims in their mission statements and brochures on the services they offer. However, the issue is that in most institutions 'service continues to be the least understood' (Ward, 2003; Boice, 2000), and little research has came out to understand and locate the place of service in relation to the other key activities such as teaching and research in the university. This first chapter is aimed at presenting an overview of the study which will include the problem statement, research questions and objectives, its delimitation and rationale and the motivation behind the study.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Service in higher education is not new but its conceptualisation, practice and placement in the current higher education dispensation can make it ambiguous, problematic and contestable. Historically, service has been one of the key components of the long-standing debates over whether higher learning should engage knowledge for its own sake or pursue it for utilitarian goals (Chiang, 2000). This debate existed in the medieval idea of higher education in the various eras of Bologna (1088), Paris and Oxford, and Cardinal Newman's *Idea of a University* (1876) in the mid-nineteenth century in which he argued strongly for liberal higher education. Later ideas such as Karl Jaspers' 'research university' underscored the need for higher learning to reflect the social realties as well as develop the power of the mind reflected this debate. Greek higher education, characterised by Plato's academy, is also suggested to have addressed directly and/or indirectly the question of relevance of higher education to the society (even if it meant only training the guardians of society). The Morrill Act (1882) with the establishment of the Land-Grant Colleges in the U. S. is acknowledged as one of the major moves by a state in the history of higher education to make it directly responsive to the needs of its society; in other words, to give direct and practical service to society (see Eddy, 1957; Key, 1996).

Since the 1960s, the contexts in which higher education strove have been acknowledged by scholars to have undergone (or undergoing) fundamental changes (see Altbach, 1999; Scott, 1984; Barnett, 1990; Ward, 2003) with some scholars terming it as a 'crisis' (Scott, 1984; Reeves, 1988). The increased demand for places in higher education institutions, the advancement in science and technology (also both physical and virtual networking among higher education institutions and organisations), the decreasing trend in public spending (in real terms) on public higher education (see Altbach, 1999; Tjeldvoll, 2002; Cummings, 1999; Clark, 1998, 2004), the critical reviewing of the role of higher education in community and national development (Bringle and Hatcher, 2000), the emergence of global market forces, and the blurring of boundaries between the university and industry (e.g. Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 1998; Naidoo, 2005) among other things, are some of the issues that are characteristic of the current context of higher education.

Considering the contextual changes that have taken place, universities seem to be confronted with challenging issues, which individually and/or collectively require some amount of attention. As a result, it has become evident that around the world today, universities have commonly accepted a triad function – teaching, research and service (see Kerr, 1995; Cummings, 1998; Ward, 2003; Scott, 2004; Scott, 2006), despite the fact that in some cases there exist imbalances between the three missions regarding the level of engagement accorded to them by higher education institutions. Yet other recent studies point to a new direction in the way this triad mission is handled; it is suggested that there is now an overlapping or a blurring between the three areas due to the new mode of knowledge production commonly referred to as the 'Mode 2 Knowledge Production' in which knowledge is produced in the context of application (Gibbon et al, 1994; Cummings, 1999) through a multi-disciplinary and multi-dimensional process. But whatever the nature and the magnitude of the imbalances or convergence in engagement of institutions of this triad mission, the issue that is more intriguing is the inclusion of 'service' as a component of this triad mission.

Furthermore, the concept has been conceptualised and used in different ways, in different contexts and for different purposes. Such brandings include 'outreach' (Lynton, 1995); 'community service' (Perold & Omar, 1997); 'service learning' (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000); 'study service' (Goodlad, 1982; Hatfield, 1989); and voluntary service. Research has also suggested some models of higher education, which are anchored on the service idea, and include the 'entrepreneurial university' (see Clark, 1998, 2004) and the 'developmental university' (also Coleman, 1984) which are generally referred to as 'service universities' Tjeldvoll, 1998; Cummings, 1999). Ironically, both past and current discussions by some sections of the academia about service in the university seem to occur under the notion that service has to do with non-academic endeavours of the university. Thus, consciously or unconsciously influencing supporters of the service orientation to implore in the idea that academic work should involve some service activities more defined in terms of linking coursework to community needs (see Goodlad, 1982; Hatfield, 1989; Bringle & Hatcher, 2000).

Interpretations and views of the service concept may be arbitrary put into three broad frames:

- *One of three missions of the university*: Some writers view service as one of the three functions of the university (other two being teaching and research) (e.g. Cummings, 1998; Ward, 2003; Scott, 2006). This view seems to be based on the current development in which universities are increasingly involving in partnership with external stakeholders in the development of knowledge-based activities and products, as well as the influence of market forces that is radically changing academic activities of universities. In most cases it is understood in the context of universities involving in business oriented activities with industry, more located in advanced countries rather than developing countries.
- *Variety of activities of the university*: Some others interpret service in terms of the internal and external activities carried out in the university (Hatfield, 1989; Boyer, 1997; Perold &

Omar, 1997; Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Ward, 2003; McFarlane, 2005). In a recent research study to understand academics perception of the service concept, McFarlane interviewed a number of academics in the United Kingdom, North America, Canada, Australia and some European countries. It was found that five different interpretations emerged – service as administration, service as customer service, service as collegial virtue, service as civic duty and service as integrated learning. This finding seems to reflect the varied views expressed in literature, which interpret service as an isolated entity carried out by individual members of the university with limited links to the core academic activities. However, the issue that remains unresolved is the difficulty in placing service within the main activities of the university, especially in relation to teaching and research.

- *Inverted Donuts*: In his interpretation of the service concept, McFarlane (2005) argues that service is a broad range of scholarly activities that support teaching and research. He uses the metaphor of 'inverted donuts'; at the centre is the formally defined core academic role of teaching and research that represent the 'jam'. Supporting the formally defined core activities is the informally 'less well defined periphery' that represents the outer portion of the jam.

These varied views reflect the wide range of ideas associated with service of the university from different traditions. However the main problems of these views is that they fail to acknowledge and identify relations between the three so-called functions and analyse them within the philosophy of higher education to present a complete and holistic picture of the situation. The varied notions also reflect the narrow and conflicting views of the concept. It seemed to be viewed as one of the several clusters of activities in the university besides the core activities. Macfarlane's conceptualisation of the concept seems more general but draws an interesting relationship between service, teaching and research. However, the view of service as supportive to the main core activities of teaching and research further compounds the problem if understood within the current context in which these core activities are increasingly being influenced by the interests of external partners and stakeholders. Macfarlane's analogy falls short of linking the entire analysis to the philosophical underpinnings of higher education in order to present systematic and well-grounded conceptual explanations. Such an analysis could help identify the different levels of service and how they fit and relate to the various activities of the university regarding the context in which the university operates. Generally, current analysis and interpretation of the service concept seemed to be conceptually deficient, unstable and lacking organised and coherent analysis, in that there has not been a coherent explanation and interpretation of the concept linking it to higher education contexts, philosophies, shades of services, the emerging types of universities, and how each of these variables influence the understanding of the concept.

Furthermore, if the different views are critically analysed from the various ways in which service is conceptualised and used, not only in different higher education institutions but also within and across national and international higher education policy deliberations, they point to an understanding that higher education institutions should act as agents for 'national development'. In view of this, the overall agenda of higher education in itself could, arguably, be considered service; its activities, whether directly or indirectly, intellectually or otherwise may be considered as service to the society. However, this seems to be more complex than what is currently known, considering the current state of higher education and its context as well as the different notions and usage of the concept. Notwithstanding the different interpretations of the concept, the focus of this research is primarily within the first interpretation. The main aim of this study is to examine the view that service is one of the functions of the university distinct from the teaching and research functions.

1.3 OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Against this background, the objectives of this research are to:

- Examine [to understand] the place of 'service' in the university; whether it is a function of the university apart from the teaching and research functions or occupies a different space, through literature sources and a comparative study of Middlesex University (UK) and the University for Development Studies (Ghana).
- Critically examine the two cases and perspectives [from literature] to reinterpret the service concept.

The above objectives would be achieved through answering the following questions:

- Is service a function of the university apart from teaching and research?
- Can there be a possible new interpretation of the service concept in the university?

To develop a systematic (scientific) process to achieve the above objectives, the study will:

- Identify and locate a conceptual framework: This will involve discussing and understanding paradigms and philosophies of higher education and locating the study within an appropriate conceptual frame.
- Explicate an appropriate methodological process and design used to accomplish the entire research project.
- Examine relevant literature sources to understand both the historic and contemporary assumptions about the service concept and how the current context of the university could influence its place in the university's academic life.
- Understand the contexts of Middlesex University (UK, London) and the University for Development Studies (Ghana, Northern Ghana) with emphasis on the nature of higher education and how national policies and local contextual dynamics influence the function of the university, and how the service concept permeates.
- Examine the core academic activities of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies to understand their nature and practice and how they link or relate to the concept of service in terms of its place as a function or otherwise.
- Make a comparison and contrast of the two cases to understand how conceptual dynamics have influenced their understanding of the place of the service concept in their individual cases.
- Conduct critical and reflective analyses to understand the dimensions of the interpretation of the concept of service and to present a coherent explanation and interpretation of the concept linking it to higher education contexts, philosophies, shades of services and the emerging types of universities.
- Discuss service engagement of the university and how it relates to the idea of freedom of the university (academic freedom).
- Conduct a critical review of the concept of service.

1.4 DELIMITATIONS

According to Creswell (2003) 'delimitation' is a parameter defining the "boundaries, exceptions, reservations" in a research, and its inclusion and position in a research proposal or write up varies from one situation to another. Delimitation defines the limits or scope of the research. To research into the entire activities of the university, will not only mean researching into a wide range of issues and assumptions but also researching into aspect of the university, especially when viewed from the point of the existing large amount of literature written on current trends of almost every aspect of higher education practice. Moreover, considering the academic objective of this research and the limited time and resources available would have certainly rendered such an exercise difficult, if not impossible. To get around this, therefore, requires a delimitation of the research into a more defined and manageable focus, which is relevant to the objective of the research and can contribute meaningfully to the current debate on the functions of the university.

Firstly, this research is limited to examining the service concept, as it is perceived and discussed in existing literature in the context of the university; and how the concept is handled, in its understanding and practice in the two cases (Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies). The intention is not to find out or to determine an 'academic definition' of the concept of service but to deal with it in the context of understanding the functions of the university in the contemporary political philosophical orientation of the university[1]. It is to understand its scope and place in the academic life of the university; in other words, to have an understanding of what it is and whether it is a function in the contemporary political philosophy oriented university besides teaching and learning and research, or a broad concept that covers all the core activities (teaching, research and community engagement) in the university.

Secondly, in this study, the terms 'higher education' and 'university' are used interchangeably as well as other related terms such as 'tertiary education', because of the international and comparative nature of the study. However, the scope of the concept 'higher education[2]' and any related terms as used in this study refer to the 'university' rather than any other institutions within the umbrella of the concept (higher education) such as polytechnics in Ghana and higher education colleges in the United Kingdom who have defined roles different from universities. In a situation where colleges and universities have the same defined roles such as in the United States, they may come under the scope of the term 'university' used in this research.

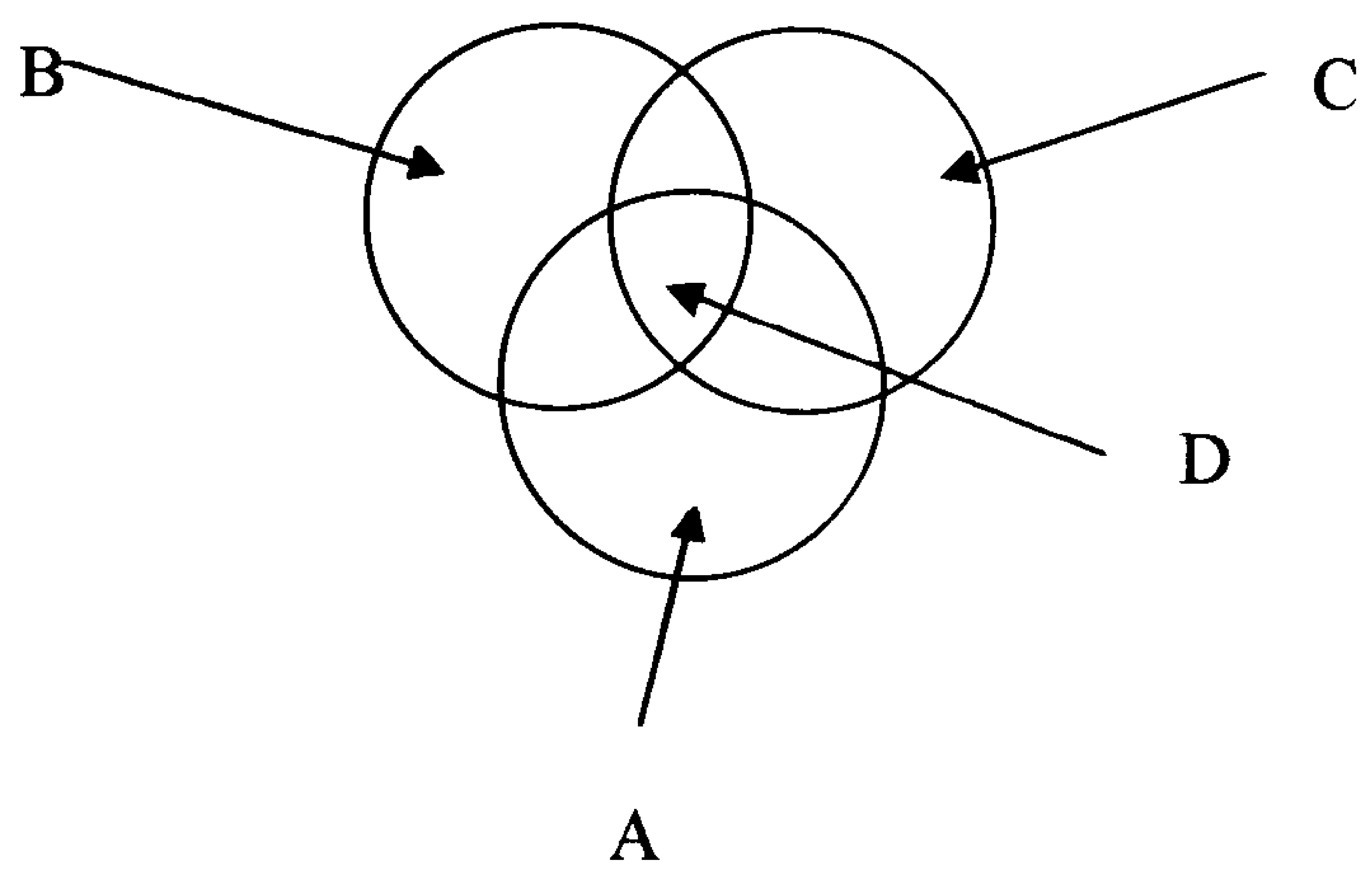
Thirdly, this study is delimited to exploring some components of the *core activities* of the two cases. Activities within universities may be classified into different categories, for

[1] In Chapter 2, three philosophies of higher education are identified: epistemological, political and pluralistic. The research explores the contemporary political orientation of universities (see chapter 2).
[2] Further discussion on the concept is done in the next chapter (theory chapter).

example academic and non-academic activities, curricular and extra-curricular activities. Assessments of a number of these categorisations exhibit some limitations including their inability to work appropriately and clearly into some of the operational design of this research. However, the model used for defining the scope of this research is based on the model of university activities suggested by Scott (2004), with some modification, shown in figure 1.1 below. According to Scott, university activities may be put into four categories as: a) Direction, Governance, Resourcing and Communication; b) Core Activities: Teaching and Learning, Research, Community Engagement and Entrepreneurial Activities; c) Support and Administrative Activities for staff and students; and d) Impact Tracking Measures. Although this division could also be problematic in some sense because activities in the university can be complex and their classification may be influenced by the purpose for which the classification is done, its adoption is no doubt essential in ensuring a systematic organisation of analysis. The scope of this research would be limited to the core activities because its interest is located within the core activities; the other activities if analysed further would take a position as supportive activities to the core activities. Their role is to ensure that there is effectiveness and efficiency in the core activities that are, in some cases, tied largely to institutional missions.

The figure (figure 1.1) shows different aspects of activities in the university, they overlap, sometimes play collaborative roles. The delimitation of the scope of this research to the core activities (teaching and learning, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities) components of the university activities do not automatically exclude the other components, they would also be analysed at a point to give supporting clarity. The entire activities of the university are interrelated and interdependent, hence there are situations in which the selected components interrelate and overlap with other activities as shown in figure 1.1. In view of this, the delimitation includes the core activities and the other components of the university activities at appropriate levels that clarify and aid better understanding and structure. Apart from this, the view that the other activities in the division play supportive role to the core activities, is in itself indicative of the interrelationship that exist between them.

Figure 1.1: The Activities of a University (Adapted from Scott, 2004)



A. Direction, Governance, Resourcing and Communication

B. Core Activities: Teaching and Learning; Research; Community Engagement and Entrepreneurial Activities (outreach).

C. Support and Administrative Activities for staff and students.

D. Impact Tracking Measures.

The community engagement and entrepreneurial component of the core activities are viewed here as outreach activities. Theses activities are seen by some as the 'service' function of the university (Tjeldvoll, 2002), which refer to practical-oriented, problem-based and/or problem-solving activities that are geared towards directly reaching out to the community or society for the purposes of offering some form of assistance through collaborative activities in the form of volunteering work, direct business, evaluation and counselling, academic placement, consultancy work and such related activities. This component is added to draw out the interrelatedness of the entire core activities of the university.

Furthermore, universities are continually transforming their structures and activities due to the changing context in which they operate and the accompanying uncertainties. Strategic plans are regularly updated, new positions are created while others closed, policies and practices on teaching, research and outreach are regularly reviewed to reflect current demands. Against this background, the data on Middlesex University and the University for

Development Studies go to June 2006. Although any known development after this period may be stated, it may not necessarily form part of the evidences to draw conclusions.

It is noted that university is a complex whole with interrelated components, as such an attempt to deal with one component of it could always be challenging due to the influences on one another. This is certainly a weakness of this delimitation (Barnett, 1990). On the other hand, for thorough investigation, it is essential have a fairly manageable focus, in the midst of practical constraints. Hence the argument lies with balance of thoughts and a clear focus. The question of how appropriate or otherwise the aspect to focus on in a research and its chosen methodology is always a matter that requires a decision by the researcher and sometimes in collaboration with other stakeholders in the research. Every decision taken has its advantages/strengths and disadvantages/weaknesses, as such it is always appropriate for a researcher to identify, acknowledge and provide a clear explanation of how such weaknesses are handled in the research to ensure the validity and reliability of the research findings.

1.5 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Research into the 'service concept'/'service university concept' within the current higher education dispensation is relatively little and limited, yet service remains a central concern to almost all universities and their stakeholders or partners today. Against this background, the research would make original contribution to the current research and debate on the nature of service engagement of the university and the space service occupies in the academic life. Understanding of the nature and position of service in the academic life of the university and its logical connexion with other aspects such as higher education philosophy, university context, shades of service, and the evolving university types/models would directly and/or indirectly provide insights into how the various elements affect the whole being of the university and the quality of its mode of delivery, be it positive or negative. This could be particularly useful to policy makers and university administrators in working towards establishing an ideal university service engagement that caters for the needs and aspiration of all stakeholders and at the same time maintaining 'reasonableness' and the criticality expected of a university as a site for higher learning.

1.6 RATIONALE FOR COMPARISON: MIDDLESEX UNIVERSITY AND UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

In the first place, the appropriateness of a comparative design springs from the research problem (the problematic stance of 'service' as one of the missions of the university) and objective. The assumption from literature that most higher education institutions have a triad mission of teaching, research and service is most problematic in the sense that the place of service in this triad mission is ambiguous. Hence, as a first instance, it requires some empirical situatedness, besides the literature claim, to get a solid understanding of this claim from at least two different contexts or cases. Apart from this, for any meaningful reinterpretation of the service concept requires some understanding of how it is understood from different institutions in different contexts, such that any understanding and reinterpretation would take cognisance of these contextual differences. Many of the assumptions from literature are applied generally to higher education institutions across the globe, with references to both the more developed and developing countries alike. In view of this, a comparative approach is made practically mandatory in this instance. Perhaps more cases than used in this study (2 cases) could have been more advantageous; limited time and resources have always been, to some degree, determined the time limit of a research study.

In comparative research several factors influence the choice of cases for study. While some researchers base the choice on similarities, and/or their differences, others base choices on how representative the cases are or their own interest in particular cases (see Kogan et al, 2000; Flick, 2004b). Sometimes the nature of the research objective could require the use of comparative studies. The choice of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies as cases for this study was based on functional and philosophical reasons (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and to some extent opportunistic (Kogan et al, 2000). The assumption was that, to compare totally similar or totally dissimilar cases would not make much sense (Etzioni-Halevy, 1990), since in reality, in the current situation, the question of having a university that is absolutely or wholly research or teaching oriented is rare; hence the range of options seemed to lie in between, requiring the study of universities that have a broad common denominator, on the basis of which contrasts could be highlighted and differentiating factors could be singled out. Hence, functionally both Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies were founded in the early 1990s on the basis of community institutions whose main functions were to serve their local communities and to some extent satisfy the broad national agenda (UK and Ghana respectively) in the provision of higher education for the citizenry. Despite this policy-dictated explicit function, teaching, research and community service and collaborative activities go on in both universities.

The philosophical bases for the creation of both institutions were similar, that is, to work towards the needs of their communities, but very different from the established traditional higher education institutions in each case (UK and Ghana). The 'traditional' universities in Ghana were created based on the earlier UK models that emphasised the development of intellectual and cognitive domains of the student, and the conduct of basic research. Hence the functional and philosophical reasons provided some similarities between the two institutions for comparison. At the same time, the common 'technical' division between nations in the world as 'developed' and 'developing' served as a differentiation or contrast between the two cases (UK and Ghana respectively) and this is reflected later in the socio-economic and political contexts of the two institutions. This, in some sense, served the purpose of representation of the developed and developing contexts in understanding how the contextual dynamics influence the place of service in the university.

To a lesser degree was the opportunistic reason for the choice of the cases. The special interest in the philosophy underpinning the model of the University for Development Studies influenced its choice, and the familiarity with the Middlesex model, and the proximity to it was another influencing factor for its choice. The limitation in time and of resources influenced directly or indirectly in limiting the choice of cases to only Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies. These cases were appropriate in providing empirical backing for the problem statement on which this research is based as well as served as cases to compare and contrast in order to gain better understanding of how contextual dynamics influence the understanding of the place of service.

Nevertheless, it might be important to define the status of the two cases in this research. Going by Stake's (2003: 136-138) classification of case studies into three types: Intrinsic, instrumental and collective case studies, this study could be analysed and classified into one of these. A case study is intrinsic if the case studied is undertaken to gain an understanding of that case, without the case been necessarily representative or illustrates a particular problem. An instrumental case study is one that examines a particular case or cases mainly to provide an "insight into an issue or to redraw a generalisation...The case is of secondary interest, it plays a supportive role, and it facilitates our understanding of something else. The case may be typical of other cases or not". While a collective case study is an extension of the instrumental study to several cases. "Individual cases in the collection may or may not be known in advance to manifest some common characteristics. They may be similar or dissimilar". This study assumes a 'collective case study' using a comparative approach or strategy in the sense that the cases are compared in order to gain insight, understanding and reinterpretation of the service concept.

1.7 MOTIVATION

The motivation to conduct research into any particular discipline or area may be influenced by many factors including the familiarity of the area, the interest of the researcher, or its relative importance (socio-economic or political) in current dispensation. The motivation into researching the 'Service Concept' in higher education context emanated from my association with a professor who had strong interest in understanding the idea of the evolving service university concept at the University of Oslo, Norway. Professor Arild Tjeldvoll, a professor of International and Comparative Education, was my programme leader who showed much enthusiasm towards the concept and organised a series of seminars and conferences to discuss issues relating to service in higher education, many of which I attended. His perspective about the emerging service university was firmly located in the advanced national context, with very little interest in its emergence in the developing world context due to his association of the service university to hi-tech and money making in the context of stringent conditions in state funding. He also had the view that service is an emerging influential third function of the university besides its traditional teaching and research functions. However, as a person who hails from rural Northern Ghana where a new university was established based on the principle of 'Knowledge for Service', I thought otherwise. This was the main influence that developed my interest into making a comparative study to understand the place of service in the academic life of the university. The second important factor was the fortune of landing into an academic environment that has been supportive for and showed immense interest in not only the service concept but international comparative studies.

1.8 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

The study is divided into three main parts and structured into ten chapters. Part one covers chapters 1 – 4 and may be seen as the foundation to the study that defines its parameters, direction and related issues. Part two covers chapters five, six, seven and eight and mainly deals with data from Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies including their local and national contexts. Chapters 9 and 10 make the third part. It analyses the findings of the study in relation to contemporary higher education delivery. Chapter One is an introduction to the study. Here the problem statement, research questions and objectives are stated. In addition, the delimitation, rationale and motivation of the research as well as the rationale for choice of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies as cases for the study are presented.

In Chapter Two, the conceptual framework of the study is discussed and explicated. The study is located within two interrelated conceptual underpinnings: constructivism and critical pluralism, which serve as guides to the research and a window through which the service concept is understood.

Chapter Three discusses issues relating to the methodology used in the study. The study is designed as a qualitative study using interviews, documents and artefacts as methods to generate data. It is also designed as a comparative international case study that uses two universities from two countries. Methods used in analysing and interpreting the data are also presented as well as methodological issues such as triangulation and research ethics which are also discussed.

Chapter Four presents the data component from general literature sources on higher education which represents the macro-level data. Its purpose is to examine general literature sources to determine the place of the service concept in higher education. Hence, it presents an overview of the history of higher education, examines the different understandings and usage of the concept, factors responsible for increase attention to service, suggested models of service universities and finally analysing a contemporary thesis on the changing nature of higher education – the 'Mode 2 Knowledge Production' thesis.

Proceeding from the literature analysis, Chapters Five and Six presents overviews of the contexts (national and local) in which Middlesex University and University for

Development Studies operate respectively. Data from this is referred to as the intermediary-level data. Key components of the chapters are broad overviews of higher education in the UK and in Ghana, even though other relevant areas such as the general educational system, economic and social characteristics of the contexts are presented. It examines the national higher education policies of the two countries to understand national perspectives about the place of service in the academic life of the university.

Following an understanding of the policy contexts of the two cases, Chapters Seven and Eight present and interpret the empirical data generated from the two institutions respectively. These are the micro-level data, involving data generated through interviews, documents and artefacts. The chapters give historical reviews of the two universities, their structures and organisations. Then, the themes identified in the data are presented and interpreted to answer the research questions.

Chapter Nine represents the pinnacle of the presentation. It compares and contrasts the contextual issues that have influenced the way each of the universities perceive service as reflected in their staff responses and their policies and modes of delivery. It also outlines the main evidence that lead to the finding and conclusions of the study. Based on the findings, a suggested conceptual model of service of the university is also presented, and ensuing emerging service university models discussed. Finally, it will discuss academic freedom in the context of the service university movement particularly relating the discussion of the two cases.

The final chapter is Chapter Ten. It gives a summary of the research and its findings, as well as discusses possibilities of an 'ideal service university' and reflects upon the implications of the findings to policy and practice.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented a summary of the entire study. This involves setting the scene by way of defining the problem statement, which leads to setting out the research questions, the general objectives and outlining a set of areas that will be examined to achieve the objectives of the study. In addition, the scope of the research is defined; stating the specific areas and concepts it will be concerned with. The rationale and motivation for the study as well as the reasons for choosing the cases for comparison have been discussed. Finally, it ends with an outline of the ten chapters and what aspects of the study each concerns.

CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Empedocles of Acragas (492 B.C. – 432 B. C.) is noted as one of the founding giants of present day science and other disciplines: the originator of the four-element theory of matter, author of two hexameter poems, treatise on medicine among others, and cited by great thinkers such as Plato and Aristotle. However, why has the name of Empedocles unknown to many in the scientific community and almost disappeared from the history of science?

The reason is, if a good idea is stated within an insufficient theoretical frame loses its explanatory power and is forgotten

(Maurelatos, 1971)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Research concerns a multiplicity of dimensions, interrelations and interactions that are carried out within specific framework of assumptions or constituencies. These also concern such areas as the type of problem being investigated, the questions to be answered, the conceptual assumptions set out and the principles to guide the overall process. One key constituent is the conceptual underpinning. As the main objective of this study is to understand the place of the 'service' concept in the academic life of the university, whether it is a function besides teaching and research or occupies a different space, it might be important to identify 'guiding principles' within which the objectives could be appropriately achieved, in the research process. It should be located within an appropriate conceptual framework in order to make it more organised and systematic for better understanding.

There is the assumption that every research study, whether designed as a qualitative or quantitative study, should have an underlying assumption or worldview that will guide and enable the researcher to conduct the research in an organised and coherent pattern, and in accordance with 'generally acceptable research procedure'. This is important in the sense that for research to be simple, effective and understandable to others, it needs to have an explicit and appropriate theoretical perspective or worldview. In this connection, Neuman (2003: 42) asserts "Almost all research involve some theory... An awareness of how theory fits into the research process produces better design, easier to understand and better conducted studies." The conceptual framework of this study is organised into two components: a paradigm – constructivism, as a theoretical lens to define the position of the researcher in the research process, and a philosophical underpinning of higher education – 'an epistemological and a political' legitimacy perspective.

2.2 PARADIGM

Social science inquiry is a domain with a community of inquirers who are characterised by different political and social orientations. These characteristics may directly or indirectly create differences in their understanding and use of theory (within and across disciplines), reflecting on their visions of issues relating to social science, the purpose of science and the positioning of members of the scientific community within the broader social arenas of contradictions (see Popkewitz, 1984). Denzin and Lincoln (2003: 30) in a publication on qualitative inquiry expressed a similar view: "Every researcher speaks from within a distinct interpretative community that configures, in its special way, the multicultural, gendered components of the research act".

In research, scholars have suggested different principles to describe general conceptual frames within which researchers locate or define themselves; this is referred to as a paradigm (see, for example, Kuhn, 1970; Guba, 1994) or a model (Silverman, 2000). The term paradigm was central in Kuhn's conceptualisation of scientific inquiry and its rationality that was viewed as "the entire constellation of beliefs" (Kuhn, 1970: 146). The term is also defined as "a set of *basic beliefs* ...represents a world view that defines, for its holder, the nature of the "world", the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts" (Guba and Lincoln, 1998: 200). Guba and Lincoln (1998, 2000) discussed the characteristics of paradigms around ontology (What is the nature of reality?), epistemology (What is the relationship between the inquirer and what is inquired?), and methodology (How do we know the world?). They noted that a paradigm is the 'net that contains the researcher's epistemological, ontological and methodological premises'. Paradigm as used by different scholars generally connotes a worldview or a perspective within which scientific inquiry is guided, it involves for example assumptions, concepts, and procedures that inform and guide the entire process of a research. In this study, the term 'paradigm' is used to describe the general framework within which the researcher perceives and interprets phenomenon. Paradigms are identified across the objectivist-subjectivist or positive-interpretive continuum of scientific inquiry (Cohen et al, 2000; Guba and Lincoln, 2003). Suggested paradigms include positivism, postpositivism, critical theory and constructivism.

Reflectively, there remain critical questions about what actually comprises different methodological paradigms in social inquiry and what the beliefs, assumptions, and values about the aim of social inquiry are. Furthermore, questions of what ways similar concerns and commitments cut across or overlap paradigms or disciplinary matrices are often regarded as distinct; and how these paradigms are actually accomplished, enacted, or constituted socially and politically (Schwandt, 2001). These questions draw attention for the need to demonstrate some circumspection in taking an extreme position on these conceptual orientations, since recent trends and debates seem to be proving some interrelations between different paradigms. This is reflected in the statement: "[P]aradigms are beginning to 'interbreed' such that two theories previously thought to be in irreconcilable conflict may now appear, under a different theoretical rubric, to be informing one another's arguments" (Guba and Lincoln, 2000: 164).

In this study, the discussion and choice of a paradigm is based on Guba and Lincoln's (1998, 2000) classification. This classification, even though in 'formative stages' and limited to the social sciences, seems more elaborate and encompassing and particularly suitable for this study than those suggested by Cohen et al (2000) that cover both the physical and social sciences. It fits the research objective and design, and widely used by social science researchers. Guba and Lincoln (2000) identify five paradigms, *positivism*, *postpositivism*, *Critical theory et al*, *Constructivism*, and *Participatory*. An overview of these five paradigms is stated in table 2.1 below. However, since these paradigms operate within two main poles, positivist and/or constructivist-interpretive, views and discussions are broadly based on these two poles.

The constructivist paradigm has been used as a lens to guide this study. This is because this study is designed as a qualitative one, and requires the understanding of different constructions of the 'service concept', from both the cases (Middlesex University and University for Development Studies) and relevant experiences/literature to be able to analyse and reinterpret the concept as expressed in the objectives stated above. The aim of inquiry, from the constructivist view, is to understand and reconstruct constructions that people (including the inquirer) initially had, through varied strategies. These features, as discussed later in this chapter, make constructivism more appropriate for this study. The inadequacy of these models as used in this study will draw some critical comments that form part of the conclusion of this study.

2.2.1 The Constructivist Paradigm

Constructivism is an elusive term that carries different meanings based on the context in which it is used (see, for example, Glasersfeld, 1995; Schwandt, 2001). It appears in several fields such as in teaching and learning which emphasises child-centred learning as advocated by renowned philosophers of education such as Piaget, Dewey and Bruner. In social science research, it also assumes a different perspective, relativism, but the common element noticeable about constructivism in all its different instances is its subjective and interpretative view of issues. However, as noted by Blumer (1954), constructivism as a paradigm only operates as a pointer as to where to look rather than indicate what to see. The concern here is to consider constructivists' as a paradigm in social science research. Constructivism is built on the assumption that reality is relative (ontological relativity); it exists in the form of constructions that are based on specific social and experiential conditions. It is an interpretive paradigm that challenges the tenet of traditional dominant positivist social research perspectives that consider social reality as an entity that can be sought (see Gergen, 1991; Guba and Lincoln, 1998; Schwandt, 2000).

The question of the nature and relationship between the inquirer and the object of inquiry is directly related to the ontological question. The view of positivism that reality exists somewhere independent of the world places the researcher in a disassociated and unrelated position to the object of research. In contrast, constructivism view of reality as subjective-based and context-bounded places the researcher (as an individual and part of the context) in a more related posture to the object of research. Hence, the epistemological stance of constructivism holds that the investigator and the object of investigation are interactively linked, so that the results of social science inquiry are literally created as the investigation proceeds (Guba and Lincoln, 1998). Knowledge of social reality, therefore, is 'irrealism' (Goodman, 1984), value-mediated, transactional and subjective.

Related to the ontological and epistemological underpinnings of paradigms is, to some extent, the question of the process of how the researcher finds out what he/she sees as reality. Again, the overriding ontological and epistemological assumption of a particular paradigm largely influences the methodology used in establishing knowledge of the world. Positivism stresses the existence of an independent reality free of any subjective influence, hence argues for processes of inquiry that are experimental and manipulative based, geared towards testing and verifying hypothesis about the existing reality. Constructivism on the other hand celebrates the subjective nature of knowledge of the world, hence argues for an interaction between the inquirer and the subject that culminates to create an encounter of the different constructions that are interpreted through hermeneutical and dialectical techniques. This means that the researcher is part of the research process; he/she influences the process and/or influenced by the process. There is a form of transaction, negotiation between the researcher and what is being researched; the ultimate results of inquiry are, therefore, subjective and context bound in nature reflecting the local context tied to consensus.

A particular important characteristic of constructivism is its aim of inquiry; this is aimed at understanding and reconstructing of constructions that people (including the inquirer) initially held, through analysis, interpretation, critique, iteration, reanalysis, reinterpretation and reiteration among other strategies to arrive at findings that contains credible level of understanding (Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Schwandt, 1998). This is in contrast to positivism, the aim of which inquiry is primarily to explain, predict and control social phenomena.

Other features equally important are the nature of knowledge, its accumulation, and the quality of inquiry. Knowledge consists of constructions that have relative consensus, and can even coexist especially when equally credible yet disagrees, however, knowledge is relatively unstable and changes as new constructions build consensus due to the changing nature of society's structure and ideals. Knowledge is accumulated through more informed and sophisticated constructions as new experiences, both internal and external, are brought to bear on existing constructions. In this connection, Flick (2004a), analysing the constructivism positions of Shutz (1962), Glaserfeld (1992) and Gergen (1994) argues that our access to the knowledge of both the natural and social world operates through the concepts constructed by the perceiving individual and the subsequent knowledge obtained that is then used to interpret experiences, understand and attach meaning (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Basic Beliefs of Alternative Inquiry Paradigms – Updated (Adapted from Guba and Lincoln, 2000, "Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions, and Emerging Confluences" in *Handbook of Qualitative Research*).

Issue	*Positivism*	*Postpositivism*	*Critical Theory et al*	*Constructivism*	*Participatory*[a]
Ontology	naïve realism – "real" reality but apprehendable	critical realism-"real" Reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendible	historical realism- Virtual reality shaped By social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender values crystallized over time	relativism – local and Specific constructed realities	Participative reality – Subjective-objective Reality, cocreated by Mind and given cosmos
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist; Findings true	Modified Dualist/objectivist; Critical tradition/ Community; findings Probably true	Transactional/ Subjectivist; value-mediated findings	Transactional/ Subjectivist; created findings	Critical subjectivity in participatory transaction with cosmos; extended Epistemological of experiential propositional, and practical knowing; co-Created findings
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods	Modified experimental/manipulative; critical multiplism; falsification of hypotheses; may include qualitative methods	Dialogic/dialectic	Hermeneutic/dialectic	political participation in collaborative action inquiry; primacy of the practical; use of language grounded in shared experiential context

Hence, reconstruction is based on the needs and experience of a given locality through deeper understanding and critical reflections of not only local experiences but also experience of others outside the locality.

Regarding the quality or goodness of inquiry in constructivism, Guba and Lincoln (1998) suggest two sets of criteria: *trustworthiness* and *authenticity*. The trustworthiness criteria have to do with credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of inquiry; while the authenticity criteria of fairness involves 'ontological authenticity (enlarges personal construction), educative authenticity (leads to improve understanding of constructions of others), catalytic authenticity (stimulates to action), and tactical authenticity (improves action)' (Ibid: 213-4). These suggestions represent broad and foundational outlooks and further digestions and/or modification may be made to reflect different contexts of inquiry.

Despite the explicit assumptions and the growing recognition and use of constructivism by social science researchers in recent times (e.g. Cohen et al, 2000; Guba and Lincoln, 2000; Charmaz, 2003; Flick, 2004a), there are *internal* and *external* criticisms of this interpretive paradigm. According to Schwandt (2000), the constructivist perspective has two orientations: the weak/moderate and the strong/radical. On the one hand, the moderate constructivist perspective, characterised by Longino's 'contextual empiricism', though hold the common view of intersubjective nature of social reality, acknowledges the role of scientific knowledge as part of the process of social negotiation (uniting the descriptive and the normative). On the other hand is the radical constructivist orientation that holds that in epistemological relativism,

"[N]o cross-framework judgements are permissible [for] the content, meaning, truth, rightness, and reasonableness of cognitive, ethical, or aesthetic beliefs, claims, experiences or actions can only be determined from within a particular conceptual scheme."

(Schwandt, 2000: 200, cited from Fay, 1996: 77).

Even though radical constructivists such as Gergen, Glasersfeld and Denzin apparently endorse this view, it is worth noting that there is no perspective of constructivism that holds an absolute view that everything is constructed, but the issue at stake is whether external reality is directly and readily accessible exclusive of perceptions and constructions (Flick, 2004a). These internal disagreements as to what should really be the exact limit of constructivism reveals the unstable nature and lapses imbedded in it as an evolving paradigm, and therefore, constitutes the *internal* criticism. However, it is important to observe that despite the fact that there is a common stance among constructivists questioning the direct accessibility of external reality, local contexts and situations are not isolated entities, but situated within, and linked to the wider social setups at different levels and in different dimensions (e.g. social, economic, political, technological etc, and at the local, regional, national, international etc levels). These linkages are part of the experiences that aid directly and/or indirectly in the construction and reconstruction of social reality at the individual and the local levels. Hence, to say that social reality should be constructed based entirely on local contexts, is to question the very core of constructivism that places great importance to the role of direct and vicarious experiences that leads to more informed and sophisticated reconstructions.

The *external* criticism of constructivism comes from the positivist camp, which argument is at variance to the former. Opponents argue that even though it is a fact that it is necessarily to know the intentions of subjects in order to understand their actions, it does not simply mean their perspectives constitute social reality (Cohen et al, 2000). Among the strongest criticism of the ontological basis of constructivism can be observed from Rex:

"Whilst patterns of social reactions and institutions may be the product of the actors' definitions of the situations there is also the possibility that those actors might be falsely conscious and that sociologist have an obligation to seek an objective perspective which is not necessarily that of any of the participating actors at all... We need not be confined purely and simply to that...social reality which is made available to us by participant actors themselves." (Rex, 1974; cited by Cohen et al, 2000: 27)

On the epistemological premises, it is argued that the view that the researcher operates interactively with the object of inquiry amounts to lack of ability to critically examine issues independently. According to Burrell and Morgan (1979: 254), the interpretative theoretical underpinning puts forward "a perspective in which individual actors negotiate, regulate, and live their lives within the context of the *status quo*" which in their opinion tantamount to what they refer to as "sociology of regulation" rather than a more rigorous stand of "sociology of radical change".

Furthermore, on the methodological sphere, Bernstein (1974) questions the validity and completeness of findings based on interpretive methodologies. It has been argued that if objectivist methods of data collection that are characterised by well planned and controlled surveys are considered inaccurate, what can be said about uncontrolled interviews proposed by interpretive perspectives (see Argyle, 1978).

All the issues raised about the ontological, epistemological and methodological bases of constructivism seems to have been dealt sufficiently (see Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Guba and Lincoln, 1989, 1998). However, from the point of view of this study, what is important from the above criticisms (both internal and external) is to make critical reflection on them in order to get a sophisticated and well informed perspective so as to take a position within the perspective that is appropriate to achieving the objectives of this research.

Against this background, the position of this research within the constructivist paradigm is that of *Moderate Constructivism*. It is reasonable and within the confines of the paradigm to underscore the intersubjective nature of social reality and the need to get better understanding of reality through context-based interactions. However, the employment of indirect and other relevant experiences from external, but linked, sources is equally essential to gain better understanding for sophisticated and informed reconstruction, and above that being in a position to integrate strategies from other conceptual frames, if need be, to enhance the efficacy of the inquiry. In this connection, Schwandt notes:

"The future of interpretivist and constructivist persuasions rests on the acceptance of the implications of dissolving long-standing dichotomies such as subject/object, knower/known, fact/value. It rests on individual being comfortable with the blurring of lines between the art and science of interpretation...Such distinctions are not very useful anymore...The interpretive undertaking thus becomes...the practice of "*actively* debating and exchanging points with our informants. It means placing our ideas on a par with theirs, testing them not against not predetermined standards of rationality but against the immediate exigencies of life." (Schwandt, 1998: 249-50)

Relating this to the research objectives, Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies are used as the case studies, where interviews and documentary sources are used to get first hand information about how the service concept is viewed and practice from their perspectives. Importantly, the interviews involved both direct and indirect strategies, in which respondents are asked directly about their opinion about the place of service and then indirectly using information about activities in the institutions as basis to critically analyse to understand their implications to understanding the place of service in the university. A series of analysis and reanalysis are made with other relevant sources, especially institutional policy and practice documents, literature at relevant levels (local, national, regional and international), to generate informed constructions and reconstructions about the service concept.

2.3 PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNING – HIGHER EDUCATION

What is higher education? What philosophies and theories underpin its overall being? The concept of higher education can be contestable in view of its difficult to pin down nature when considered from its different and changing perspectives, whether from the historical or the ideological considerations. Generally, higher education is that level involving higher learning and usually carries out at the university level or other institutions with similar functions. Barnett (1990) for example thinks of the university as an institutional embodiment of higher education, while some scholars are much more sceptical about the term. Graham (2002: 35) prefers the term 'university education' rather than 'higher education' arguing – "the more common expression 'higher education' is unsatisfactory in at least one important respect; it does not attribute any distinctiveness to studying at university rather than other places of tertiary education". This is usually the case especially in instances where intermediary institutions are clustered into the umbrella of higher education. However, the issue is more complex than just a simple emphasis on the term university. The concept of 'university' itself can be a contestable one, especially if view against the contemporary times in which 'university education' is offered at varied institutions. The issue is more of the purpose and content rather than a mere branding, 'university'. In some contexts, the naming of an institution 'university' is based more on political parameters rather than say intellectual resources or quality of prospective institutions. The possible baseline, therefore, of the appropriateness or otherwise, of the label of any institution of 'higher learning', should take into consideration the contextual complexities. In this study, the concepts 'higher education' and 'university' are used interchangeably as well as other related terms such as 'tertiary education', due to the international and comparative nature of this research. However, the scope of the concept 'higher education' and any related terms as used in this study refer to the 'university' rather than any other institutions within the umbrella of the concept such as polytechnics in Ghana and higher education colleges in the United Kingdom.

Literature on the philosophy of higher education presents different conceptual perspectives explaining the basis for higher education. There is always a sense of uneasiness in talking about the philosophy and theory of higher education due to the lack of a 'worked-out kind' (Barnett, 1990) of conceptual underpinning to it. Adelman (1973) used three metaphors (ivory tower, social service station, and culture mart) to explain the perspectives and nature of higher education. Several other attempts have been made in the past and present to address this issue (e.g. Brubacher, 1982; Clark, 1984; Scott, 1984; Barnett, 1990; Kerr, 1995). As such, it is partly based on this contested nature of the philosophy of higher education that this study attempts to pull together some of the existing thoughts on this to build a conceptual framework.

Despite the differences in philosophical perspectives, most centre on common issues: the purpose of higher education, between 'relevance' and 'academic excellence' and what the university is or ought to look like in a complex and changing world. However, the 'epistemological – political' legitimacy perspective proposed by Brubacher (1982) is used here as the main conceptual underpinning of this research due to its relative appropriateness over the others in serving as a powerful framework to enhance the efficacy of this study. It is more open, flexible and if used properly is capable of catching every possible view on higher education both in the past and in the present.

This perspective has been developed, categorised and given a visual impression (figure 2.1). It is important to state that the categorisation of Brubacher's philosophical analysis of higher education is not strongly based on a 'historical' or an 'ideological shifts' reasoning (Barnett, 1990), but a combination of both with some consideration of contemporary debates. This is out of the view that contemporary literature suggests expressions of all the past views in the current debate (see Maskell and Robinson, 2001; Graham, 2002; Barnett, 1990; Clark, 1998, 2004; Sperling, 1997; King, 2003). As such, the conceptual model here is broadly located such that any particular lens of the philosophy of higher education can be taken in.

2.3.1 Brubacher's Assumptions of the Philosophy of Higher Education

Brubacher (1982) suggests the 'epistemological – political' legitimacy perspectives. This forms the core conceptual frame of this research. The 'epistemological – political' exegesis holds that two philosophies legitimise higher education: *epistemological* and *political*.

The epistemological philosophy of higher education centres on the beauty and worth of knowledge in itself (Newman, 1852), citing Veblen (1918) and Flexner (1930) Brubacher states that those inclined to the epistemological orientation view the pursuance of knowledge in higher education as an end in itself, it is done in 'a spirit of "idle curiosity"'. For any education to be considered as higher education, therefore, should seek scholarship that is academically oriented and engages in the pursuit of the objective truth in the complex world, rather than just for the 'low' purpose of seeking knowledge to solve problems of society; which is termed as professional education or utilitarian (Newman, 1976). The core business of the university is how to ensure academic excellence. The academic is the disinterested type; curriculum therefore is disciplinary centred, and removed from the affairs of the larger society, control by the academia and involves mastering of existing laid down knowledge that builds on the intellectual soundness of the student. This view attempts to dichotomise between the academic and practical worlds.

Nevertheless, the epistemological stand, when viewed from its historical background seems to have undergone a succession of reconceptualisations, due to what Barnett terms as a 'set of challenging social and epistemological circumstances' (Barnett, 1990: 23). As such, several categories emerge within this thinking, which this study puts arbitrary (broadly) into two: the *radical/conservative* and the *moderate* (figure 2.1). The radical are the hardliners who think the business of higher education should be removed from anything that is associated with issues confronting society, rather should involve objective scholarship and the intellectual development of the individual. This is reflected in the views of Nisbet (1971), Minoque (1973), Newman (1976), Shils (1981) and very recently Maskell and Robinson (2001) and Graham (2002) in a more disguised form. For example, Minoque

(1973) argues that academic inquiry is a continuous intellectual process and not an issue of practical application or a point of termination. In a workshop to discuss universities and national development at the Institute of Education (University of London) Shils (1981: 58) emphasised, "The university is a place of devotion to the learning of study, research and teaching of the best that has been achieved in the world and of adding to it and improving it if possible".

The moderate group are those who 'cling to objectivity but try to be circumspect and modest in their claims' (Brubacher, 1982: 21). They acknowledge the realities of the time and try to consider other alternatives by which to carry on the legacy effectively. Similarly, it is argued that it is not in the best interest of society to consistently stand for the kind of free, self-critical education without at the same time promoting the kind of society that makes such a preference possible (Ibid: 22). In contemporary literature, one of such views is echoed in the writings of Barnett (1990; 1997; 2003).

In contrast to the epistemological philosophy is the *political* philosophy of higher education. Political philosophy does not see the process and outcome of higher learning as a mere curiosity or pursuance of knowledge for its own sake, but as a means to solve real-life problems. It, therefore, acknowledges the role of higher education in training experts to deal with such challenges as in government, agriculture, industry, education, health, international relations etc. In the activities of higher education institutions in the public domain, there are conflicts over what choices to make, and in the processes of determining the appropriate choices power comes in to influence outcomes, hence the very conflict nature of this gives it the political flavour. Francis Bacon was one of the advocates of this perspective when he decried:

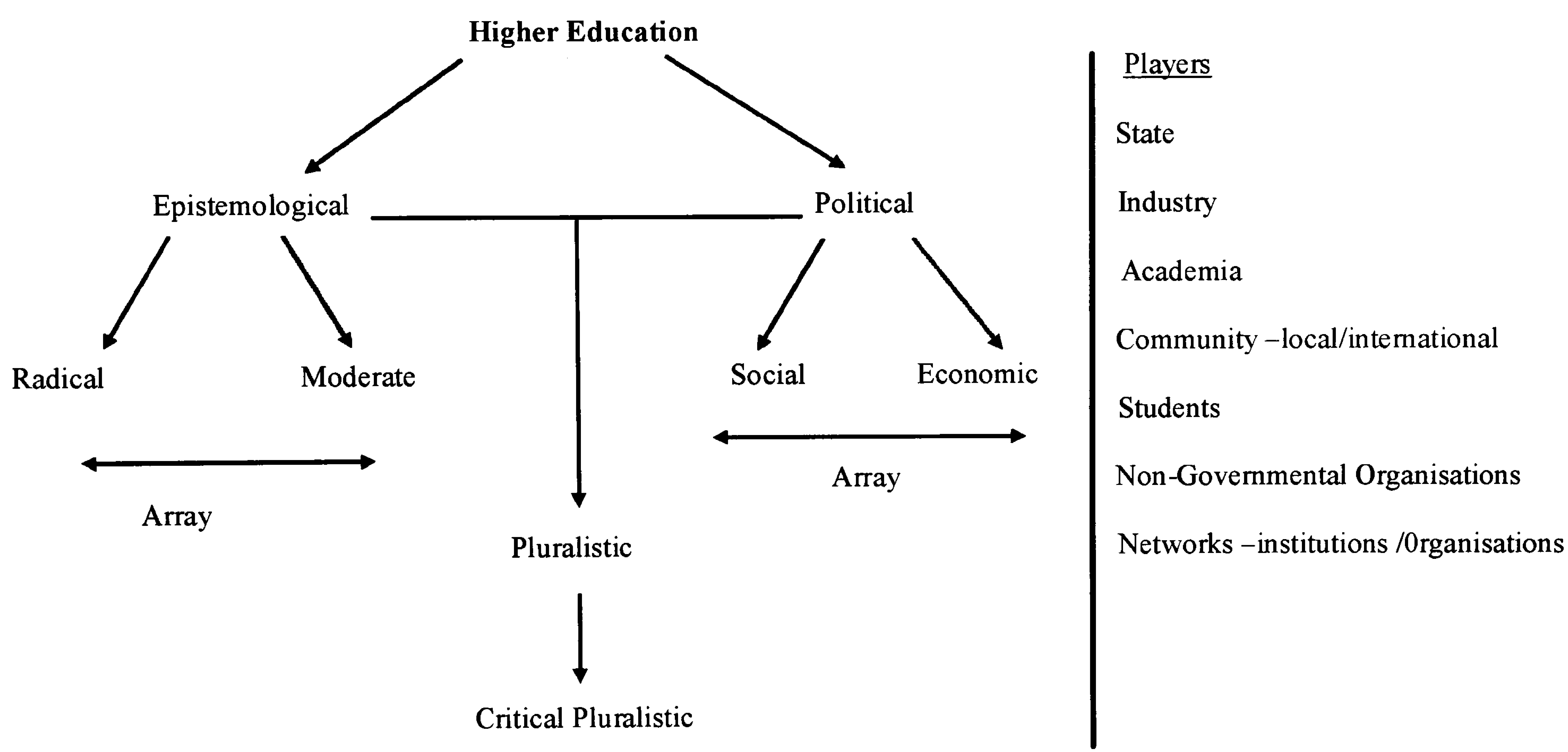
"...a kind of adoration of the mind...by means whereof men have withdrawn themselves too much from the contemplation of nature, and the observations of experience, and have tumbled up and down in their own reason and conceits.'...that knowledge should be for the benefit and use of men, that it should 'not be used as a courtesan, for pleasure and vanity only, or as a bond-woman, to acquire and gain to her master's use; but as a spouse, for generation, fruit and comfort." (Kerr, 1995: 2)

Similarly, Karl Jaspers's (1965) conception of higher education, even though within a context of post-war situation, also reflects the political view. Jaspers stressed the need for higher education to play an important role of creating a humane society. He identified four main functions the 'modern university' should play as: 'research, teaching, a professional education, and the transmission of particular kind of culture' (Barnett, 1990: 21, see also Karl Jasper 1965). Despite this, the university community should remain as a community of scholars and a place of critical thinking. A reflection of the political philosophy on the current context of higher education seems to gain more grounding, the call being much in favoured and in tune with popular demands.

Like the epistemological philosophy, there are variations in the views held within the political realm, but of different nature. These variations could range from absolute social to absolute economic (Bagnall, 2000). Some argue that higher education should be directed towards the public good (social capital), that is, directing scholarship towards the solution of societal problems (see, for example, Goodlad, 1982; Hatfield, 1989; Boud and Solomon, 2001). Others argue for the economic good (economic capital), stressing on the need for higher education to be relevant to the economic needs of the contemporary times (see Sperling and Tucker, 1997; King, 2003).

In between the epistemological and political philosophies are a cluster of groups who express views that neither belongs entirely to any one of the orientations but share some common as well as different views on some of the philosophical dimensions of higher education. One group argues that sticking to any one of the two main philosophies of higher education (epistemological and political) is idealistic thinking, which invariable is an unrealistic view. It argues for higher education to involve in the production of 'cognitive values' and as well as maintain an interest and involvement in the affairs of the society (Brubacher, 1982). Kerr (1995) calls this the 'multiversity', viewing it as one community but representing several interest groups and levels of academic interests and persuasions. However, if Kerr's multiversity is critically examined, may seem to represent a collection of competing forces rather than a representation of epistemological-political orientations. This group is referred to as the pluralist group; but there is the critical pluralist group that insists that higher education should involve rigorous intellectual activities and at the same time underscore the need for this to reflect the needs of society. Their argument is partly moral, that since the university depends on the society for its resources it is important to maintain

Figure 2.1 Higher Education Philosophies (idea based on Brubacher, 1982, graphical presentation originated from this research study



the support of the public by proving the usefulness of higher education to it. Citing from Wallerstein (1969) and from others, Brubacher (1982: 20) states: "Intellectual excellence should be only one of the objectives of college and university...social justice is also a value, and were it to conflict with the pursuit of intellectual excellence, the later should not automatically prevail."

Another group, within the pluralists, inclines to the epistemological stance, but moves beyond to stress the intrinsic nature of the human: human imagination, intuition and the religious component. This stance underscores the role of religion in the foundation of the university. According to Brubacher (1982: 127) "Formerly, the college or university was for the most part a handmaid, an adjunct of the church...the church was largely instrumental in founding and nurturing colleges whose main function was to provide a learned clergy. Reinforcing this alliance was the belief that scholarly work was a service to God". This could be particularly true in the case of Cardinal Newman when he linked scholarship to 'Catholicism' and service to God. Aike (1971) also expressed a similar view.

However, it should be noted carefully that the above categorisation and the subsequent association of scholars to the different orientations is for the sake of the current discussion and considered relatively loose, as it is extremely difficult if not impossible to simple pin down scholars to particular orientations.

The question then is; how effective and applicable has been the argument for the case of the academic university over time? Of course, there is the basic fact that the theoretical foundations of the current intellectual strength was built by the earlier academic oriented scholarship, whose study accumulated knowledge and improved upon them. However, the present complexities of the higher education context, characterised by pressure of accountability from stakeholders, the reduction in state support as a results of disproportion between state funding and increasing enrolment, advancement in science and technology and their utility, among other things, seem to reduce the epistemological argument to superficial or virtual strands rather than practical or living cases in higher education systems. In this connection Barnett (1990: 26) laments, "The modern higher education system stands, then, in the dock, accused and surely convicted of being an educational practice without an educational theory". Nevertheless, how realistic is Barnett's assessment of the situation? Postmodernist perspectives may object to this assertion as a mere propaganda or conservative thinking that abhors and disregards the present context and changing landscapes of academic inquiry and the emerging 'critical theories' (e.g. Clark, 2004). Similarly but contrastingly, to what extent is the growing inclination of higher education institutions towards the utilitarian orientation appropriate for the intellectual advancement of our era.

2.4 LINKING PARADIGMATIC STANCES TO PHILOSOPHY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

At this point, it might be useful to get a clearer view and understanding of the conceptual position of this study by relating the reflection on the philosophies of higher education to the earlier discussions of paradigms, particularly constructivism, via some schools of thought: *rationalism, pragmatism,* and *instrumentalism*. The epistemological philosophy of higher education stresses the acquisition of objective knowledge or truth, pursuance of knowledge for its own sake and much more intellectualistic; and seems to incline more to *rationalism*. Rationalism is based on the assumption that the essence of the human being is his/her rational nature. Therefore, the purpose of higher learning should be directed to the development of this rationality. In a paradigmatic sense, the epistemological stance is more comfortable and in line with the positivist paradigm. Positivism holds that there is an objective reality out there, which can be reached through inquiry.

On the other hand, the political philosophy of higher education believes that the essence of higher education should be to solve problems of the society; it detests the claim that higher learning should concern the pursuance of knowledge for its own ends, exclusive of matters related to society. This view is in consonance with the pragmatist school of thought. *Pragmatism* is based on the idea that truth or reality is tested through the degree to which it is useful or have practical consequences. It opposes the pursuance of higher learning for intellectualistic purposes. Hence, if reality is based on its usefulness or practical consequences to society or even to the individual, it implies there are multiple realities; what is useful to one society might not necessarily be useful to the other. Against this backdrop, the interpretative paradigms, in this case radical constructivism, share similar assumptions with the political philosophies of higher education and pragmatism. Radical constructivism believes exclusively in the intersubjective nature of reality. Reality is multiple can only be verified through interactions with the local.

Furthermore, another group identified in the philosophies of higher education is the pluralist views, and within this group is the critical pluralist. The views of 'critical pluralism' is based on the belief that there is no one objective knowledge, academic excellence should be one of the objectives of higher education, and this should be pursued not for its own sake but for the purpose of using such excellence to solve problems confronting society. This thinking may be associated with instrumentalism. Instrumentalism, according to Brubacher (1982: 140) attaches great importance to human rationality but does not see intellectualism as an end in itself, "the instrumentalist views intelligence not as an end but as a means of solving problems – the problems of the scholar but, fully as important, the problems of commerce, industry, politics, and social conditions generally". This school of thought also holds that truth is multiple and can be verified through the logic of inquiry. Analysing the instrumentalist stance with paradigmatic stances will align this school of thought to the moderate constructivist stand. The moderate constructivist stance, like that of the radical, as noted earlier on, stresses on the pluralistic nature of reality but, unlike the radical, holds that reality is not verifiable through only the local experiences but through multiple experiences. It is through the analysis, interpretations, reanalysis and reinterpretations of different but related constructions that reality can be verified. The common thread, therefore, that links critical pluralist, instrumentalist and the moderate constructivist is the flexibility and openness to other ideas in pursuit of their orientations.

2.5 CONCLUSION

For this study, it is more acceptable to take the 'critical middle course': critical constructivism, critical pluralism, and instrumentalism because it opens the opportunity for the use of diverse perspectives to understand social phenomena. These perspectives are used to guide the entire process of this study. What is more is that, higher education is acknowledgeably a place for higher learning, a form of learning that is critical: critical of knowledge itself, critical of the world and critical of one's thought (self-reflection). At the same time, historical development of higher education has brought it closer to society; the current state of society is partly or wholly an outcome of higher education, that is, it has contributed in no small way in making what the society is today. As Gould notes: ...It is the source, the inspiration, the powerhouse, and the clearing house of new ideas" (Gould, 1970: 91; cited in Brubacher, 1982: 20).

This stance seems more appropriate in achieving the set objectives of understanding how the service concept is viewed and practiced from the point of views of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies and the attempt to propose a new interpretation of it. It opens the opportunity for the research to be flexible but critical in the overall methodology of the study and it enables the use of relevant and effective strategies to achieve its objectives. The next chapter is the methodology chapter which will present the entire procedure used in achieving the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER 3: ISSUES OF METHODOLOGY

Where is science in social science?...Research methodology is what makes social science scientific

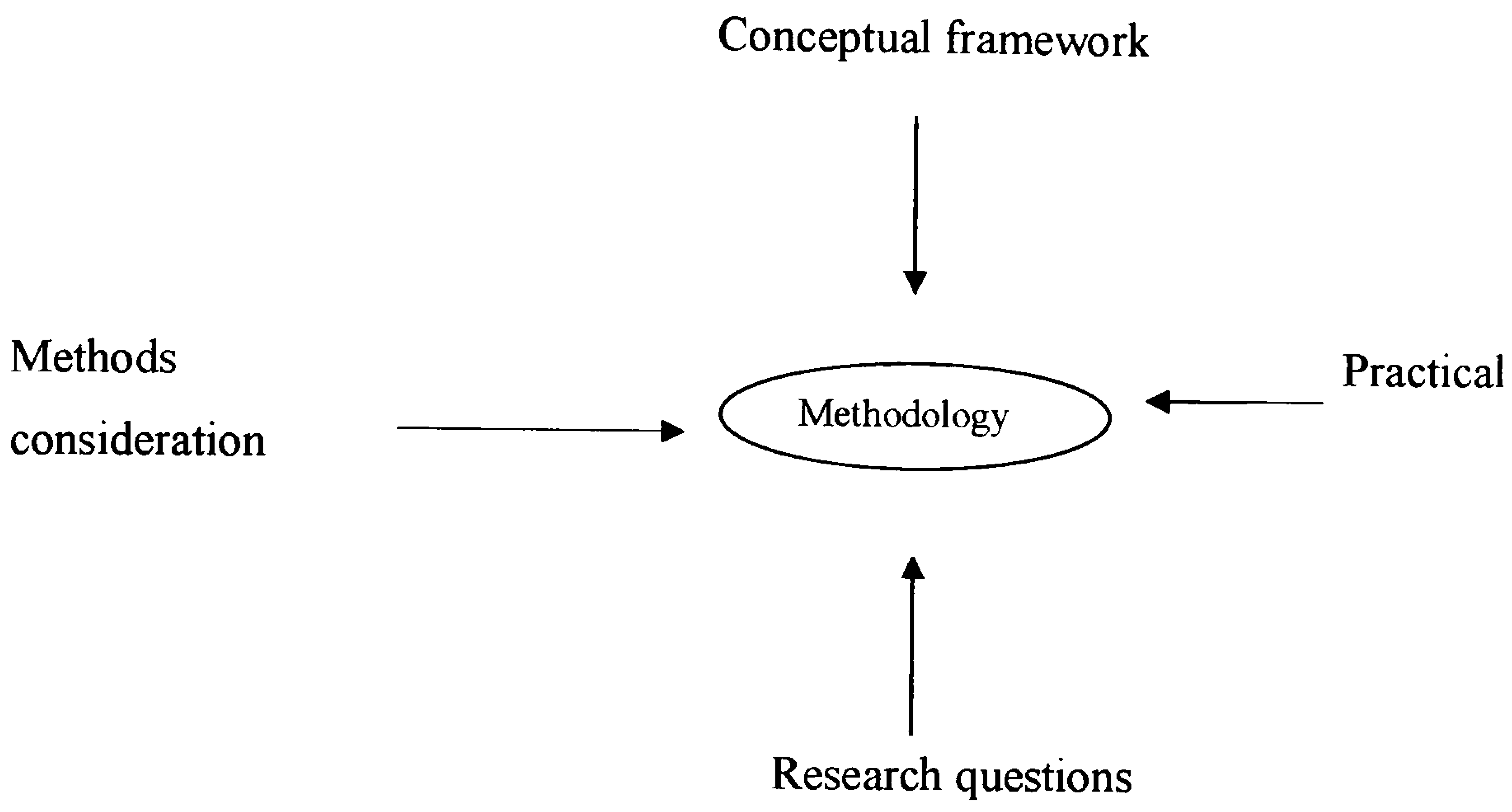
(Neuman, 2003: 68)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

What is Methodology? What is its role, and what does it entail in a research process? According to Silverman, (2000: 77) methodology refers to "a general approach to studying research topics", while Mason (2002) views it as the overall strategy used in a research. It is generally understood that the research methodology concerns how the entire research is carried out. It is the point where the researcher clarifies how the research is going to be conducted, the framework on which the research is built, and the point of convergence of the ontological and epistemological stances of the study. Burrell and Morgan (1979) hint that the type of methodology used in a study has an important effect on the way the study is conducted and its subsequent results. In this study, methodology is perceived as the process through which the objective of the study is achieved; it involves the entire process of the study and has to do with the rationale for selecting the corpus of literature, study cases and how the study attempts to produce a systematic procedure and analysis to achieve its objective. The methodology in a research study is considered as the centre at which all the components of the research converge (see figure 3.1). The methodology should be appropriate enough to answer the research questions effectively; it should reflect or operate within the theoretical underpinning of the research; it should also use methods of data collection that are consistent to all the other parts as well as the all practical issues that are likely to affect the research.

The aim of this chapter is, therefore, to provide the pathway through which the objective of this study is achieved. The chapter has the following components: A Qualitative Study, A Comparative, Case Study, Methods of Data Generation, Data Analysis and Interpretation, Verification/Evidence, Ethical Issues and Conclusion.

Figure 3.1: Methodology as centre of convergence of components of research



As seen from previous chapters, every piece of research is located firstly around solving/unveiling a particular problem(s)/phenomenon and, secondly plotted within a theoretical framework or perspective. This research is located around the current understanding of service as one of the three missions of the university (the other two being teaching and research) and has a general objective of examining to understand the place of service in the space of the university, whether it's a function besides teaching and research or a broad concept that covers all the core activities. Conceptually, this research is located within two interrelated conceptual frames: the constructivist paradigm which serves as a lens to define the position of the researcher in the research process, and critical pluralistic philosophy that defines the philosophical position regarding the function of higher education. Constructivism is an interpretative paradigm whose ontological view is one of relativism – reality is subjective and context-bound, in other words, reality is based on a particular context in which it is viewed. Its epistemological stance holds that the researcher and the object of research are interactively linked. The researcher as part of the process exerts influences on the process while at the same time he/she is also influenced. The aim of inquiry is to understand and reconstruct constructions that people (including the researcher) initially held, through consensus, critical analysis and interpretation, and reanalysis and reinterpretation. In contrast, the radical positivist stance holds the view that reality exist somewhere which inquiry is to locate, through the process of experimentation to test and verify the existing reality. Critical pluralist philosophy is one of the three philosophical underpinnings of higher education. While the epistemological philosophy advocates the seeking of knowledge for its own sake, the political philosophy underscores the need for higher education to reflect the needs of the entire society. The critical pluralistic view is located between the epistemological and the political philosophies; it emphasises on the need for higher education to crave for academic excellence and at the same time, this should be handled in such a way that it reflects the needs of society. Tying the conceptual framework to the objective of the study, this tries to understand the service concept through getting the existing constructions of the service concept through literature and the two cases of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies. Through this understanding, critical analysis and reanalysis would be made based on the critical pluralistic philosophy of higher education to arrive at a new interpretation of the concept.

3.2 A QUALITATIVE STUDY

This research is designed as a qualitative study. Qualitative research has always been viewed in terms of quantitative research (see also Mason, 2002; Bryman and Bell, 2003; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003); almost every definition of qualitative research is seen as incomplete without actually comparing and contrasting it with quantitative research. Yet others suggest that the differentiation or contrast between these approaches is no longer useful since the differences between them seem to becoming indefensible (Layder, 1993). In attempt to narrow down the differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches, others suggest a combination or mixing of both in the process of research (e.g. Creswell, 2003; Kelle & Erzberger, 2004). Despite this, Bryman and Bell (2003: 25) contend: "However, there is little evidence to suggest that the use of the distinction is abating and even considerable evidence of its continued, even growing, currency". This distinction can still be observed from relatively recent publications such as Silverman (2000), Mason (2002), and Bryman & Bell (2003), Flick (2004b). Table 3.1 shows the differentiation between qualitative research and quantitative research

According to Weiss (1998: 335), qualitative research is one that "examines phenomenon primarily through words and tends to focus on dynamics, meaning and context". Denzin and Lincoln (2003) share the same view; they view the word *qualitative* as connoting an "emphasis on the qualities of entities and on processes and meanings that are not experimentally examined or measured (if measured at all) in terms of quantity, amount, intensity, or frequency". In contrast, quantitative research is viewed as one that examines phenomenon through the use of numbers and statistical analysis. The views associate qualitative research to interpretive approaches, which are more inclined to anti-positivist views, or those that are quantitative oriented (see Cohen et al, 2000). However, within the umbrella of qualitative research some scholars still identify some perspectives that are positivist inclined, for example Nelson et al (1992: 4) state:

"Qualitative research embraces two tensions at the same time. On the one hand, it is drawn to a broad, interpretive, postmodern, feminist, and critical sensibility. On the other hand, it is drawn to more narrowly defined positivist, postpositivist, humanistic, and naturalistic conceptions of human experience and its analysis."

Table 3.1: Comparing qualitative and quantitative research

Qualitative	**Quantitative**
Subjective	Objective
Inductive	Deductive
Non-numeric data (words)	Numerical data
Anti positivist	Positivist
Procedure is specific and replication is rare	Standard procedure and replicatable

Table 3.2: Linking research questions to methods (some examples)

Questions	Data source	Methods	Justification
Is service a function of the university besides teaching and research?	- Documents and literature: Books, journals, conference papers, newsletters at all levels (general, national and regional or local) - Middlesex University - University for Development Studies	Documentary Documentary, interview, artefacts Documentary, interview, artefacts	Documents - provided credible view of literature; policy documents provided national, regional and institutional understanding of the service concept. Interviews - provided individual and institutional views on service as well as policies and practices of institutions, also verify documentary sources. Artefacts - Use in verifying claims from interview and documents; also provide relevant information
Can there be a possible reinterpretation of the service concept?	Use of data sources from all sources and all levels (micro, intermediary and macro)	-Interview -Documentary -Physical Artefacts	Understand service from different contexts through interviews, documentary analysis and physical artefacts that support service to aid reinterpretation

Paradoxically, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) identified four major *interpretive* paradigms that structure qualitative research as "positivist and postpositivist, constructivist-interpretative, critical (Marxist, emancipatory), and feminist-post-structural". The interpretive tradition, also referred to as the hermeneutic, has often questioned the application of positivist methods in the study of social reality (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2004). In view of these inconsistent perspectives, qualitative research seems to be too broad to simply confine to a particular definition, it cannot be simply pigeon-holed and put into a set of principles (see Mason, 2002) or put simply, "a distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is far from 'watertight'" (Denscombe, 2003: 231). Despite the inconsistency in the understanding of qualitative research, Creswell (1998) identifies some common grounds in the different perspectives through a comparison of leading writers on qualitative research such as Bogdan and Biklen (1992), Eisner (1991) and Merriam (1988). He concludes that writers agree that the natural setting is the source of qualitative data, qualitative data is analysed inductively, paying attention to particular, and focus on participants' views and meaning attached for interpretation.

In this study, the view of qualitative research is based on the understanding that it involves the examination of phenomenon basically by the use of words; and places emphasis on dynamics, meaning and context (Weiss, 1998); the key concept here being 'meaningful activity' rather than measurement of 'behaviour'. It is similar to the view of Denzin and Lincoln (2000: 3)

Qualitative research...involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of meanings people bring to them.
Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials – case study; personal experience; introspection; life story; interview; artefacts; cultural text and productions; observational, historical, interactional, and visual text – that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals' lives.

Putting this in context, the study has assumed a qualitative strategy because the service concept, which is the central phenomena studied in this research, is particularly socially situated. Getting a better understanding of the concept and its place in the university warrants an understanding of the views of players in the university context, in this case Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies, and their micro and macro contexts. This would help the use of empirical data to aid in the examination and reinterpretation of the service. Apart from the source of data being from the two cases considered as natural settings, the personal experience of the researcher and other relevant experiences (textual and practical) are used to enhance sophisticated understanding and reinterpretation. Methods used in data collection are interviews, documents and physical artefacts, which are in consonance with the features of a qualitative study. The appropriateness of the qualitative strategy for this study, therefore, highlights the strengths in using the strategy.

However, could a quantitative design have been more appropriate for this study? Quantitative research is generally understood as a form of research that emphasises on quantification in the generation and analysing of data using statistical techniques (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; Verma and Mallick, 1999). Most quantitative research techniques are normally developed around the notion of the existence of an external reality which inquiry is aimed at discovering through methods such as experimentation or survey. Considering the nature of the research questions and objectives, a quantitative method will not have been effective in obtaining the implicit conceptions of the service concept embedded in the individual players, if especially, a structured interview schedule had been used which is associated to it (quantitative approach). Besides, the concept is a social construct whose understanding varies not only between higher education institutions, but among individuals and groups in institutions as well as in the wider society, and hence requires getting the whole view through a 'controlled conversation' rather than a questionnaire or a structured interview. However, it is important to note that even though the study has assumed a qualitative nature, the use of numbers and statistical data to convey ideas has been essential. For instance, in determining the level of response of subjects in the initial fieldwork in Ghana, percentages are used to convey this: 90 percent of subjects contacted formally through the researcher's school Research Administrator responded positively. This indicates that some form of calculation was made. The use of such numbers and statistical expressions reflects the moderate constructivist stance of this study that integrates other conceptual elements where necessary.

3.3 A COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY

3.3.1 Comparative Education

According to Ragin (1987: 1)[3] "Thinking without comparison is unthinkable. And, in the absence of comparison, so is all scientific thought and scientific research". This remark may still be very important and applicable in most instances today, but the area of comparative education goes beyond this to be particularly interested in the nature and purpose of the comparison. This study locates itself under the umbrella of Comparative and International Education and to some degree concerns higher education policy and practice, due to its use of two different national educational institutions in a comparative perspective not only to understand the place of service in the university but to understand how different contexts influence the understanding of the place of the concept, and to enhance its reinterpretation.

In view of this, it might be necessary to clarify some conceptions (or elements) pertaining to comparative education. Comparative and International Education has evolved for over a century now and has assumed varied conceptualisations/definitions (see Bereday, 1964; Halls, 1990; Paulston, 1994; Crossley, 2001; Wilson, 2003). However, this study prefers the definition of Paulston (1990: 923) which states: "Comparative and international education studies comprise a synthetic field using ideas, methods, and data from a wide variety of disciplines, research traditions, and educational practices". In many instances the term 'comparative education' is used to include international education (see Noah, 1984), which is applied in this study. Although different purposes have been assigned to comparative and international education in the past (Sadler, 1900; Noah, 1984; Altbach & Kelly, 1986;) such as using context as a means to explain and understand differences and similarities in educational systems (see Corner & Grant, 2004), the purpose of the use here is not only to understand the influences of contexts in accounting for similarities and differences in the understanding the place of service, but also to use such an understanding to reinterpret it.

In analysing the logic of comparative inquiry, Lane (1990: 188) identifies two metaphors to differentiate between the definition of comparative social inquiry as *thin* and *thick*. The thin definition refers to the view of comparative method in social science research as a method of analysis that deals with or concentrates on several objects of study with an aim of identifying similarities and differences between them, while the thick definition connotes "the analysis of properties of various kinds of *spatial units*: countries, states, societies and sub-national government entities". Lane's differentiation is centred on the macro unit rather than the micro unit analysis, following Ragin (1987). The lapse in this is that the micro elements within these spatial units are important in generating their requisite features of the macro. In this research, even though based on two sub-national units, the micro unit analysis such as the immediate micro contexts (local contexts) of the two institutions have been important in understanding certain features embedded in the cases. This is in line with the view that comparative study should proceed at two levels simultaneously – the macrosocial level and microsocial level (Przeworski and Teune, 1970).

[3] Cited from Swanson (1971).

Another characteristic of the international comparison in this study is its departure from the common feature of comparing in which analyses are based explicitly on cross-national systems (Postlethwaite, 1988; Le Metais, 2001) or what Corner and Grant (2004) refer to as 'themes approach' and 'systems approach' that deals with comparing specific levels of systems e.g. secondary or university. Though, comparison here is based on two national contexts, it takes a different approach from the common feature by using one relevant higher education institution from each of the two countries as the central cases rather than broad national higher education systems. Nevertheless, national and even international data sources (mainly literature/documentary) have been implored in the analyses as important sources to achieve the objectives of the research.

3.3.2 Methods of Comparison

Following Bereday's (1964) proposed methodology for comparative education to involve a progression from description of data through to its interpretation, juxtaposition and comparison, many books have followed this line with some slight modifications (see Noah, 1984), but the contested part of this is the way this process is achieved. According to Corner and Grant (2004: 66), "there is a general agreement that the study of comparative education has to progress from accurate *description* to *analysis*, and from that to the forming of *generalisations*", and citing from Crossley (2001) they contend that despite this agreement there exist "strong disagreement about the best ways of achieving this". In this piece of qualitative research, methods of comparison is generally based on Bereday's framework but keeping the steps or process interacting and overlapping, rather than the structured process, due to the nature of the cases; it also integrates rigorous conceptual reasoning at all stages.

According to Bereday (1964) four steps may be used in comparing cases in comparative education research: description, interpretation, juxtaposition and comparison.

I. Description: This stage is a 'preliminary step to comparison' which involves identification and classification of information relevant to the cases from primary sources (for example reports by commissions and official reports of ministries), secondary sources (for example books, articles, research reports) and auxiliary sources (for example books and articles that are not directly related to the cases).

II. Interpretation: At this stage, the data is exposed to analysis; organised and put into themes such as historical, political and social, and then the data is evaluated in relation to the research objective.

III. Juxtaposition: Here a common comparative framework is developed through which further analysis can be made; establishing the similarities and differences between the cases and hypothesising for comparative analysis.

IV. Comparison: This final stage involves a simultaneous comparison of the cases through presenting them in a joint report, that is "A reference to one country must elicit an instantaneous comparison to the other".

Although, Bereday's model has become a bit 'outmoded' due to the growing complexity and widening scope of comparative education research, this study uses the framework but slightly alters the process by using an interactive and overlapping procedure that keeps the whole process in harmony as follows:

I. Description and interpretation: At this level data generated through interviews, artefacts, documentary sources, books, articles, government reports, institutional reports and other relevant sources at the international, national (UK and Ghana), regional/local (London and Northern Ghana) and institutional (Middlesex University and University for Development Studies) levels are presented. Here raw facts and data are presented with classifications. This information appears in chapter four (general overview of the concept of service from literature), parts of chapters five and six (UK and Ghana contextual overviews – location, economy, society, education), parts of chapters seven and eight (facts about Middlesex University and University for Development Studies respectively).

II. Interpretation: Analysis is carried out at this stage at each of the levels of data generation (macro, intermediary and micro levels discussed below in section 3.4.2). The relevant data presented from general literature; UK and Ghana; and Middlesex University and University for Development Studies are evaluated with an objective of understanding the different interpretations of the place of service in the academic life of a university. These interpretations appear in relevant chapters of this thesis that deal with the various aspects of the study.

III. Juxtaposition: In Chapter Nine, a direct comparison is made based on the evolved themes particularly using data from the macro, intermediary and micro levels (for example national policy perspectives, institutional mission statements, resources) to show similarities and differences in the interpretation of the concept of service in the two cases.

IV. Comparison: At this stage, the comparison of the cases is centred on two areas; one, understanding the different dimensions of the interpretation of the concept of service, using the data from the two cases. For instance, analysis to establish the Western and non-Western interpretation of the concept is based on data from Middlesex University and University for Development Studies. Two, using data to develop a conceptual framework to explain the state of coherence of service engagement to relevant issues such as a university's context, philosophies of higher education, core activities of the university, and the models of contemporary universities discussed in chapter four.

The process is interactive and overlapping because at each step of the process relevant data is drawn in from the various levels of data generation to form the building blocks to progress to the next step, as well as incorporating rigorous conceptual reasoning related to the theoretical framework guiding this research study. Bereday's model of comparison in comparative education has been used because it is appropriate for this research design, serves as a good model to make the comparison systematic and focus, and its credibility is established over the years illustrated by the general recognition and used (directly or modified) by many comparative educationists across the globe.

3.3.3 Issue of Equivalency

The issue of equivalency is an important element in comparative education, although some comparative education researchers do not place much importance on it. However, once this study is cast in a comparative case studies mould, it is essential to consider the equivalency issue here. In general, the issue of equivalence is seen by some as important in determining the validity of the comparison, especially in comparative studies. According to Teune (1990: 53-54), in order to compare something across systems it is necessary to have confidence that the components and their properties are the 'same', or indicate something 'equivalent'. Every educational system operates within a context, which determines largely the features of the system (Corner and Grant, 2004). Comparing educational systems or any component of the systems, therefore, requires some attention to the contenx. Nevertheless, the term 'equivalent' in comparison can be tricky and could have varied connotations and dimensions depending on the objective of the research. Some research objectives might require the sampling out of cases that are similar in some respective, e.g., comparison of post 1992 universities in the UK, or higher education systems in two developing countries in Africa. In these instances, the expressions '1992 universities' or 'developing countries in Africa' define the equivalency. Similarly, some research objective might require similar or opposing cases. The important issue here is that the various concepts used in defining these entities are one thing and what actually happens in reality in those entities is another, because their individual micro and macro contexts have varied influences on them as well as the meaning of the concepts. Context becomes a 'signifier'.

In view of this dilemma, it is certainly a difficult task to establish credible equivalence, because concepts are one thing and their meanings vary from one context to another. In this sense, the proposition that a great deal of flexibility must be used to get into the systems to enhance comparability (see Tuene, 1990; Goedegebuure and Van Vught, 1994) is something that requires attention and further development. This research has used evolving concepts, both similar and different features, to establish credible equivalence as the research progresses. These include establishing 'functional equivalence' (involves objectives of institutions), 'economic-contrast equivalence' (more developed and developing economics) and spatial equivalency. For instance, most respondents in Middlesex University see North London boroughs as its local community whereas respondents in the University for Development Studies consider Northern Ghana as its local community; in this instance, these communities are equivalent. These are propositions that evolved in the research process.

3.4 METHODS OF DATA GENERATION

3.4.1 Methods and Data Generation

A Method in research is generally viewed as a technique for gathering and analysing data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Silverman, 2000). The choice and goodness or effectiveness of a particular method depends on how it is in consonance with the conceptual frame and methodology of the research. Examples of methods include interviews and questionnaires. Data refer to the relevant information or items a researcher uses to answer the research question(s) set out, it involves both numerical and non-numerical types of information and evidence 'that have been carefully gathered according to rules or established procedures' (Neuman, 2003). Mason (2002) suggested the use of the phrase 'data generation' rather than 'data collection'. She argues that the former demonstrates an interaction of the researcher with the sources of data, while the later cast the researcher as a passive participant in the research process as well as a neutral collector of information, which many qualitative orientations would reject. This assertion could be true or false depending on the meaning attached to 'collecting'; hence, it is more of semantics. Nevertheless the argument is convincing, hence this research uses data generation instead of data collection.

The form of data generating methods used in any study also largely depends on the type of research design – whether it is quantitative or qualitative. In quantitative research, it usually takes a deductive form, random selection of site and interviewees, and data generating method structured such that it allows the data generated to be quantified into numerical values. Such methods include questionnaires and structured interviews. On the other hand, qualitative research takes an inductive form, context-bounded (conscious choice of site and interviewees) and enables the researcher to have a deeper understanding and interpretation of data collected, and usually takes the form of semi structured or open-ended interviews, observations and/or documentary analysis. As a qualitative case study research, this research has used documentary, semi-structured interviews and physical artefacts/material culture. This is in consonance with the view expressed by Yin (1994: 78): "Evidence for case studies may come from six sources: documents, archival records, interviews...and physical artifacts". Apart from the general idea on methods used to generate data in the field, certain basic ideas are of particular importance in this direction; things such as gaining access/entry to sites/field and the general role of the researcher are issues considered in this section.

Two important methodological strategies are used in the research to strengthen the authenticity of the research design and results. These are 'Direct' and 'Indirect' approaches. The former (direct) involves asking respondents direct questions about their notion and understanding of what service is and its place in relation to the core activities (teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial) of the university, especially teaching and research. From these responses, analyses are made to formulate ideas and assumptions of respondents' notion of the place of service. Although this method provides specific and direct information of respondents' notion of the service concept, one disadvantage is that responses may reflect individuals' views and opinions rather than what is actually prevailing at the operational level of the university. The later (indirect approach) has to do with understanding the nature of the core activities regarding the university's policies on them, including objectives, process, evaluation, stakeholders and resources supporting the activities through official documents, interviews and artefacts of the institutions. From the understanding of the nature of these activities at the policy and operational level, analyses are made to determine whether activities such as teaching and research suggest service characteristics or not. One advantage of this approach is that it provides detail information for in-depth understanding of the phenomenon (service), across different contexts. The challenge posed in using the indirect is the potentials of a researcher subjectively concentrating on data parts that supports his/her perspective. This issue and related ones are taken note of in the research process, and an utmost objectivivity is maintained to the best of ability. The method used in analysing the data is the Interactive Analysis Model, based on themes, in which mutually interactive activities (data collection, reduction, display, and conclusion [reading and verification]) are carried out to transform the data into organised and understandable state to enable a conclusion to be drawn.

3.4.2 Levels of Data Generation

The data generation process has been divided into three overlapping levels: Macro-Level, Intermediary-Level and Micro-Level. The Macro level contains materials that are obtained from the international sources; these include relevant publications, books, international journals, research results by international organizations etc. The intermediary level reflects data obtained from national (UK and Ghana) and regional and local sources (England and Northern Ghana).

These data are basically documentary involving relevant national, regional and local journals, and official documents and publications on educational, economic, social, political and geographical issues The third level; micro level involves data from Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies covering academic staff, and resources as detailed in Tables 3.3.

Table 3.3: Levels of Data Generation (originated from this research study)

Level **Data Type**	***Macro Level*** (International)	***Intermediary Level*** (UK, England, London, North London/Ghana, Northern Ghana	***Micro Level*** Middlesex University/ University for Devt. Studies
Documentary	International- literature, journals, publications, research reports newsletters, newspaper, etc	National, regional and local – archives, laws, newspapers, journals, research publications	Institutional– news-letters, journals, rese-arch publications, policy documents
Interview			Academic staff, administrators
Artifacts/ Material Culture		Material resources of national and local	Infrastructure, technological resources, library and laboratory stock

3.4.3 Setting the Scene

Empirical materials for this research are generated from two sites: Middlesex University, London – UK and the University for Development Studies, Tamale/Wa – Ghana. Thereafter all other major activities on the study will be carried out at Middlesex University where the researcher is a student. Table 3.4 below provides some features of the sites for empirical materials.

Table 3.4: Characteristics of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies compared (originated from this research study)

	Middlesex University	**University for Development Studies**
Location	London, UK	Northern Ghana, Ghana
Status of Location	Developed	Developing
Type	Community (Urban) University	Community (Rural) University
Faculties/Schools	5[4]	4
Student Population	Approx. 31, 000	Approx. 5000
Year of Establishment	1992	1992
Campus Structure	Multi-Campus	Multi-Campus

3.4.4 Role of the Researcher

Apart from the researcher seeing himself as the sole person to 'moderate' the research process, there are other implicit roles he performed. In most cases, every fieldwork begins with a negotiation to gain entry into the site, and making contacts with people to get all agreements and arrangements concluded. According to Silverman (2000), depending on the nature of the settings and the research problem, two forms of access to field setting may be sort: 'covert' and 'overt'. In the case of the former, the researcher accesses the site without the knowledge of the subjects; while in the later, the researcher seeks permission from the subjects, usually through the 'gatekeepers'.

In this study, the overt approach is used due to the nature of the research problem. This called for obtaining relevant documents, viewing of relevant physical artefacts and interviewing some individuals of the institutions and relevant groups and individuals from their environments. The process of negotiation for access during the initial fieldwork took two main forms, depending on the context of the site. One way akin to the University for Development Studies was sending official letters via the researcher's school's Researcher

[4] Now 4 schools; with the merger of the School of Art and School of Lifelong Learning and Education in August 2006 to form the School of Art and Education.

Administrator, which proved successful, as over 90 percent of subjects who were sent letters responded positively. The second was through email letters and direct contact with subjects, which proved positive, and was akin to Middlesex University.

3.4.5 Purposive Sampling

Generally, sampling in research answers the question of how the researcher selects sites or subjects for a study; sampling could involve the selection of case(s) and/or subjects, which require specific strategies depending on the research design, conceptual underpinning and the methodology. In this section, sampling is viewed in the sense of selecting subjects for the study. In this case, sampling is defined as "the act of selecting units from a population for study" (Weiss, 1998: 336). Research literature has identified two main types of sampling (even though expressed in different forms): random and non-random (Gray, 2004), probability or non-probability (Schofield, 1996; Cohen et al, 2000) or random and purposive (Weiss, 1998). According to Cohen et al (2000), the difference between this two is that in the probability (random) sampling the inclusion or exclusion of any member of the population is a matter of chance, through random sampling techniques such as systematic or stratified. While in the non-probability (purposive) sampling, members of the population are purposively or intentionally included or excluded in the study based on the underlying principles guiding the research.

Table 3.5: Middlesex University: Period of Research, Fieldwork and Duration of Interviews (originated from this research)

Period of Research: January 2004 – October 2006 **Period of Fieldwork:** August 2005 – December 2005		
Category of Interviewee	**Number**	**Interview Duration (minutes)**
Deans of School	3	55, 40, 36
Middlesex University Research Office (MURO)	2	26,
Director of Research and Postgraduate Studies	4	28, 27, 25, 24
Director Curriculum	3	17, 18, 20
Director of Business Development	3	20, 25, 26
Director of National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership-(NCWBLP)	1	47
Head of Research (NCWBLP)	1	25
NCWBLP	1	22
Middlesex University Innovation (MUI)	2	24, 22
Lecturers	21	47, 40, 35, 27, 27, 26, 25, 25, 25, 24, 24, 24, 24, 23, 23, 23, 22, 22, 20, 18,
Total	41	

The purposive sampling technique is used to obtain the subjects for this study. A purposive sample refers to a sample that is deliberately chosen by a researcher for specified research reason(s). This has to do with applying his/her own judgment in selecting experienced and appropriate person or persons who could provide information on the subject in question, it is a technique that is more appropriate for qualitative inquiry and recommended by most research literature (see Creswell, 1998; Weiss, 1998; Silverman, 2000; Cohen, et al; Mason, 2002).

Table 3.6: University for Development Studies: Period of Research, Fieldwork and Duration of Interviews (originated from this research)

Period of Research: January 2004 – October 2006 **Period of Fieldwork:** 24 April 2005 – 20 June 2005		
Category of Interviewee	**Number**	**Interview Duration (minutes)**
Deans of Faculties/Schools	3	43, 40, 37
Registrars	4	
Heads of Departments	6	42, 30, 26, 22, 21,21
Director of Centre for Interdisciplinary Research (CIR)	1	21
Coordinator of Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP)	1	24
Lecturers	15	45, 43, 35, 30, 29, 29, 28, 28, 28, 27, 27, 26, 25, 25, 25
Total	30	

In this research, the sampling is based on the principle of selecting subjects who are deemed to have some information about the subject matter of the research. Apart from this, it was an 'opportunistic' type of purposive sampling especially in the case of the UDS. It was difficult to get hold of subjects for interview due to the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP)[5] that required lecturers to supervise students living in the local communities as part of the training programme. Hence, opportunity was taken to interview lecturers who were contacted in the field and willing to be interviewed without going by any specific sampling procedure. Academic staff who were deemed to have information relevant to the research in both cases were sampled/'selected'. In all 71 subjects were interviewed: 41 and 30 at Middlesex University and UDS respectively (see tables 3.6 and 3.6). Purposive sampling has been useful in this research because of the differences in the academic structure of the two cases; it created the opportunity to select subjects who can contribute to the evolving concept under study. Furthermore, an important characteristic of the sampling

[5] See chapter on University for Development Studies for more about the TTFPP.

procedure used here is that it is essentially an evolving process where the initial sampling was seen as an assumption, and modifications taking place as the research progresses: addition and subtractions made as more insight was gained through the process as to who or where relevant and rich information could be obtained. Related to this is the difference in structure of the two institutions: Middlesex had wide range of academic related positions, example directors of research, curriculum, and business development. Nevertheless, some level of caution has always been taken to ensure that the process does not degenerate into a disorganised one.

Table 3.7: Sources of data generation compared (originated from this research study)

Middlesex University	University for Development Studies
Institutional Structure: A. Interviewee: Deans of Schools, Directors of Research, Directors of Business Development, Curriculum Leaders, lecturers. B. Artifacts/material culture: Key facilities (libraries, lecture rooms, laboratories/resource centres and others) 'observation' during time of use of facilities. C. Documentary sources: Policy documents on higher education in UK and Middlesex in particular, mission statement, periodic university reports including research, evaluation and quality control. Relevant national policy documents and statements, other relevant documents	Institutional Structure: A. Interviewee: The registrar, Deans of faculties, registrars of faculties, lecturers. B. Artifacts/material culture: Key facilities (libraries, lecture rooms, laboratories/resource centres and others) 'observation' during use of facilities C. Documentary sources Policy documents on higher education in Ghana and the UDS in particular, mission statement, periodic university reports including research, evaluation and quality control. Relevant national policy documents and statements, other relevant ones.

One advantage of the purposive sampling technique to this study is that an opportunity is given to select the right subjects who have deeper knowledge of and who are abreast with the existing situation at the two universities. The purposive sampling provided useful and meaningful information relevant to the research. A major challenge to purposive sampling is the need to be very critical in selecting interviewees, for an error in selection might lead to the collection of false/misleading information, which would invariably have an effect on the credibility of the research findings.

3.4.6 Documentary Sources

Documents occupy an important position in modern societies; hence can be vital in most research topics. According Denscombe (2003: 212) "Documents can be treated as a source of *data in their own right* – in effect an alternative to questionnaires, interviews or observation". Documents are understood "as written texts that serve as a record or piece of evidence of an event or fact" (Wolff, 2004: 284). Yin (1994: 81), proposes that with the exception of studies related to "preliterate societies, documentary information is likely to be relevant to every case study topic…information can take many forms and should be the object of explicit data collection plans". Documents can take the form of letters, laws, administrative documents, books, journals, institutional and public policy documents and newsletters, research reports, etc. However, there are different views among researchers as to the scope of documentary sources (see Scott, 1990) partly as a result of increasing use of visual and audio-visual materials supported by new technologies such as videos, as sources of data collection (see Mason, 2002). Denscombe (2003) argues that visual sources such as pictures, artefacts, sounds constitute forms of documents. The view of the individual researcher regarding what should comprise documentary data source has some influences on the categorisation of data sources in the research.

In this research, documents as a source of data is viewed as written texts of any kind, whether they are materials such as books, journals, newspaper reports, institutional policy documents, newsletters and research reports etc, or electronic texts such as those from internet sources. This study considers artefacts/material culture such as buildings, equipment etc as a separate source of research data. Documentary sources have included government policy statements or documents (both on education in general, higher education and the specific cases – Middlesex and UDS), mission statements, periodic university reports including research, evaluation and quality control from the two institutions, as well as current publications on the service concept. Included also are relevant national policy documents and statements from both the University for Development Studies and

Middlesex University. These documents are categorised into primary and/or secondary sources. Primary referring to original documents such as national constitution, university mission statements etc; while secondary sources to journal articles and other publications that comment on policy issues relating to the topic and institutions.

The conceptual basis for documents as source of data for this study is that written words, text, literature, and records, are meaningful social constructions that directly or indirectly reflect people's constructions of social reality. Hence, documentary sources can provide evidence to establish people's view about the service concept. This is understood that series of factors such as the researchers' ability to digest and understand the text, and the possibility of documents being falsified or influenced by external powers are some of the influences that can reduce the credibility of documents. Advantages of documents in this case is that it has not only provided extensive information on the service concept but also relevant information on higher education at the international, national and local levels that has contributed in no small way in the research process. Disadvantages of documents could include the possibility of falsification, misreading and/or misinterpretation. The criteria for assessing the quality of documents suggested by Scott (1990) (authenticity, credibility, and meaning) have been used. Due consideration is made to ensure that documents selected are genuine and their sources unquestionable (authenticity); free from error and distortion (credibility); as well as provide clear and comprehensible evidence (meaning). Bell (1999) refers to this as 'critical analysis of documents', which involves external and internal criticism.

3.4.7 Semi Structured Interview

Interview is seen as one of the widely used methods of data collection in social research (see Weiss, 1998; Mason, 2002; Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003; Hopf, 2004). According to Gray (2004: 213) "interview is a conversation between people in which one person has the role of a researcher". There are many other similar views about the meaning of interview (see Kitwood, 1977; Denscombe, 1998). Some scholars view interview as the easiest way to obtain research data, however, to make qualitative interview credible and effective, it should go beyond being seen as a mere conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee(s) to more of an interaction between the two sides with a view of obtaining information relevant to the research objectives. As a social interaction, it differs from the questionnaire, which only requires the respondent to fill the questionnaire form. In using semi-structured interviews, an opportunity is created to manage certain human factors that influence human relations to get the best out of the interview.

Several categorisations of interviews have been identified by different writers (see Cohen et al, 2000; Gray, 2004), however, the major difference between interviews lies in the degree to which they are structured, which to some extent reflects the aim of the interview (Chen et al, 2000). Interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003), and conducted through face-to-face or through the telephone, and to individuals or a group(s). Structured interviews involve pre-prepared and standardised questions that are administered to all respondents and are usually used in quantitative research. Semi structured interviews involve the use of some amount of pre-prepared questions that are not standardized for all respondents. "The interviewer has a list of issues and questions to be covered, but may not deal with all of them in each interview. The order of the questions may also change depending on what direction the interview takes" (Gray, 2004: 215-216). The unstructured interview has flexible characteristics; even though the areas of interest for the research are established, "the discussion of issues is guided by the interviewee" which enables some form of "control over the interview for both interviewer and interviewee" (Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003: 45). In their latest edition, Cohen et al (2000: 289) mention the non-directive interview, which is an extreme form of the unstructured interview used mostly in psychiatric and therapeutic fields. "This is characterised by a situation in which the respondent is responsible for initiating and directing the course of the encounter".

The form of interview used in this study is shaped along the semi-structured model, involving one-to-one interview, direct interview (not telephone or group). Mason calls this the "qualitative interviewing". The choice is based on the conceptual underpinning that knowledge is situated, contextual and created through the interactions between the researcher and the subjects. Hence, "meanings and understandings are created in an interaction, which is effectively a co-production, involving researcher and interviewee" (Mason, 2002: 63). Contrasting methods in data generation in social science, qualitative interviews could be associated with the interpretive paradigms (see Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; Hopf, 2004), of which constructivism is one. The use of semi structured was useful, again, due to the different administrative structures of the two cases. While Middlesex

University had wide range of academic administrative positions such as deans, directors of research (at university and school levels), directors in-charge of business development, curriculum directors etc, University for Development Studies had only deans, registrars and in some cases head of departments who had wide range of responsibilities. Hence, the semi structured interview method created opportunities to vary the style and scope of questions.

Two forms of recording were used during interviews: tape recording and jotting down salient points in an interview protocol. The later is done for two main reasons; as a form of security against failure of recorder and as a way of reminder to return to some salient issues in the course of the interview. The interview is later replayed and transcribed; a replayed is done to ensure that the transcription is an accurate replica of the original recording, taking note to include pauses and other expressions.

Viewing semi structured interviewing in the context of this research, such a method indeed helped in obtaining implicit and explicit meaning and understanding of the service concept from the viewpoint of key people involved in both Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies. People interviewed include administrator-academics and academic staff (see table 3.5). Its flexible but focus features creates the opportunity to obtain research-relevant information in the process of interviewing by taking advantage of situations to include issues that were initially overlooked or skipped, as well as restructuring the pattern of questions. The opportunities gained were likely to go by if the structured interview type were used; similarly, an unstructured interview could have led the process into irrelevant precincts that were likely to affect the relevance and richness of the data generated. Major challenges in using the semi-structured interview were anticipated as possibilities of using poor questioning technique, inaccuracies due to poor recall, and the temptation of interviewee saying what the interviewee wants to hear. These issues were addressed by piloting the process with colleagues and possible lapses were dealt with. However, the problem of spending more time than planned was common occurrences due to heightened interests of respondents in the topic. Generally, activeness and creativity helped in upholding the credibility of the process.

3.4.8 Physical Artefacts/Material Culture

Physical artefacts as sources of empirical evidence in social science research seem not to be widely used as compared to interviews, questionnaires and documents. In view of this, literature on using physical artefacts as a data generating research method in some social science disciplines particularly in educational research are comparatively limited in the sense that the number of publications that give in-depth treatment to this as a source of data is limited, at least from experiences gained from this research. Perhaps this could be attributed to the view that physical artefacts sometimes seem to have less potential relevance in most research projects especially in case studies (see Yin, 1994). Nevertheless, in archaeology, modern material culture studies, history and other related disciplines, physical artefacts play significant roles in providing credible evidence on the meaning of concepts and their practices (Hodder, 2003).

According to Yin (1994) physical or cultural artefacts are another source of evidence in social science research, and could include items such as technological devices e.g. computers, tools or instruments, or some other physical evidences. Lincoln and Guba (1985) view physical artefacts in a wider sense, for example, physical items such as in the office (amount of paper in an 'in' tray that could indicate workload or efficiency). Hodder (2003) refers to such physical artefacts as "mute evidence" in that even though they do not involve spoken words, can be credible evidence if used in the appropriate context.

In this study physical artefacts are viewed as the physical resources and infrastructure (Middlesex and UDS campuses), technological devices such as computers etc (see table 3.5). These are used as sources of data for this research based on the assumption that material artefacts of a given society are important features that reflects its views of reality and how these views are translated into reality. Hodder (2003) argues that these physical artefacts have different meanings in different contexts; hence it is difficult to construct general meanings for them.

Service as a concept operates at two basic levels/forms: it exists as constructions in peoples' minds as well as in an 'action' or 'process' form. In each of these forms, certain factors influence its state and understanding, for example, service in its action or operational form is influenced by the material resources that support its process, likewise at the conceptual level. The argument that has been established here is that in order to grasp the meaning of service and how it is practicalised in the two contexts/cases, it may be important to get a picture of the physical artefacts that support core activities to be able to understand the contextual influences in its understanding. In addition to this, physical artefacts are used here as a verification mechanism to triangulate or verify data generated from interviews and documents. Features of physical artefacts that exerted great influences on the view of the place of service in the universities included their location (e.g. campuses), quantity/amount (e.g. lecture rooms), relative usage and to some extent level of efficiency; more or less determine by the contextual dynamics.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Generally, data analysis refers to the search for patterns in data, which enhances interpretation (see Neuman, 2003). In research, it concerns the organisation and summary of the raw empirical materials generated into manageable and understandable state, indicating the important components necessary to serve as evidence to answer the research question(s). There are some similarities and differences between qualitative and quantitative data analysis. The similarities include the fact that both involves inferences, systematic generation and recording of data, and strive to avoid errors in the process of analysis. However, while quantitative analysis emphasises on standardized data analysis techniques, perform data analysis at the end of data generation and use numbers to measure the out come of analysis; qualitative data analysis is less standardized, starts analysis from the on-set and uses words or concepts to bring out meaning and generalisations.

Designed as qualitative research, this study accordingly uses qualitative data analysis techniques to process the data. It is generally agreed that in qualitative data analysis, there is no standardised method (see Miles and Huberman, 1994; Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Flick, 2002; Mason, 2002; Neuman, 2003) "rather, it is custom-built, revised and 'choreographed'" (Creswell, 1998). It is further acknowledged that analysis of empirical materials in qualitative research has no specific position in the research process but rather begins early during the stage of generating the empirical materials to the final end of the study (see Yin, 1994, Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002; Neuman, 2003); as such several modes of data analysis in qualitative research exist. According to Patton (2002: 432) "Qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. No formula exists for that transformation. Guidance, yes. But no recipe...the final destination remains unique for each inquirer, known only when – and if – arrived at".

Comparative studies that are quantitatively designed use specific standardised statistical methods of analysis such as regression analysis and inferential statistics. While those qualitatively inclined use methods ranging from well defined methods of analysis such as Mill's Methods of Agreement (see Ragin, 1987; Neuman, 2003) and Boolean Method of Qualitative Comparison (see Ragin, 1987) to more open, but rigorous and systematic interpretative practices such as those in grounded theory (see Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The comparative method of analysis used here is an open, systematic process of interpretation that is based on identified themes. The identification of themes involves a rigorous continuous and repetitive process of coding and recoding of data until stable and best categorisation is achieved. The thematic coding system suggested by Flick (2002) following Strauss (1987) for comparative studies is used. Kogan et al (2000) also used this in a comparative study of transformation in higher education in three European states. Themes have been identified, and comparison made between the two cases at both micro and intermediary levels. Literature sources cut across the cases, e.g. national and institutional policy documents.

In this research, the process of data analysis is characterised by some mutually interactive activities: *Practical preparation*, *Descriptive accounts of setting*, *Interactive Model*, *'Data collection'*, *Data reduction*, *Data display*, *Data Reading Technique*, and *Verification*. These features constitute the data analysis strategy for this study. In each of these operations outlined above, data from Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies are continually compared, with themes modified or existing ones consolidate. General literature sources also passed through this process.

3.5.1 Practical Preparation

As seen from previous sections, different forms of data generating techniques have been used in this study. Data analysis has also been conducted simultaneously with its generation, at least at sub-process levels. For example, at the initially stages data generated from books, journals, conferences etc were analysed to enhance the formulation of themes and concepts that have been discussed in chapter two and later in chapters four, five and six. Practical preparation of this information was done, for instance, information generated from these sources was put into A4 size papers which enhanced storage and easy movement through the different materials. This was also done with interview transcripts and the other data generated.

In addition, relevant reminders were written on margins of papers as to the state of the data (whether it required some further work at that stage or not). The papers were stored in labelled paper files to enhance easy identifications. Then back-up copies of these were made through photocopy (the copies are usually used for further work). Practical preparation is highly recommended by many scholars (see Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Silverman, 2000; Denscombe, 2003).

3.5.2 Descriptive Accounts of Setting

This stage involves a detail description of the settings of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies, both at their micro and intermediary (see tables 3.3 and 3.4) constituencies. This type of description is what is referred to as *thick description* (see Patton, 2002; Denscombe, 2003) due to its reasonably detailed nature, and importance in providing information for comparison purposes. The kind of description done here moves beyond the detailed description to what is termed 'accurate description' (Corner and Grant, 2004). Accurate in the sense that apart from the detailed description, the cases are conceptually sorted, described on the bases or along some conceptual underpinnings; for examples, develop/developing countries dichotomy, the philosophies underpinning higher education, and contemporary models of higher education. However, the description here is opposite to Geertz (1973) view of the thick description which concentrates on detailed description of some particular features within a single case. The descriptive process is not an isolated entity located at a point of the research, but a developing process through the study, which is modified as new insights surface.

3.5.3 The Interactive Data Analysis Model

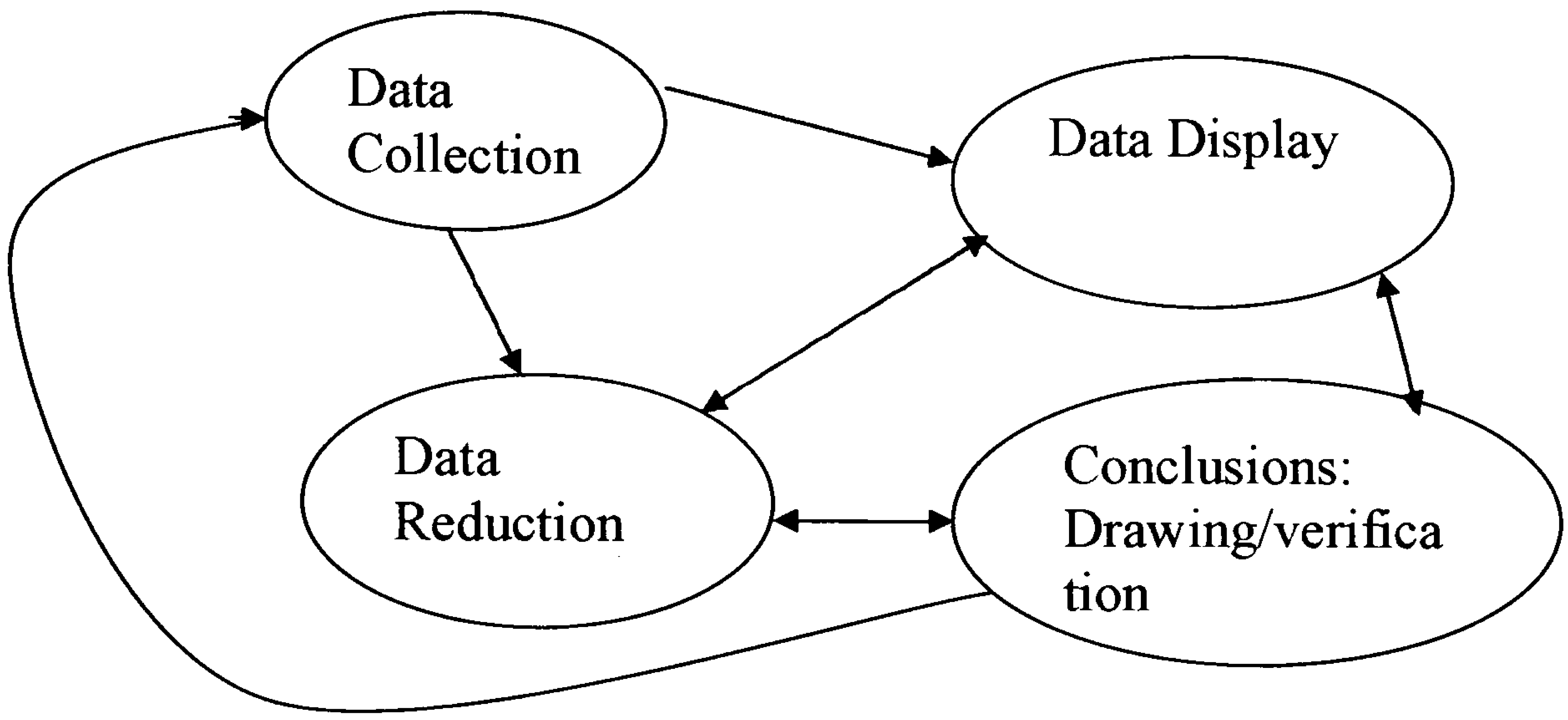
The analysis also uses a modified version of Miles and Huberman (1994) proposition of qualitative analysis as consisting of three concurrent flows of activity in the analysis process as data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. According to the writers, the three concurrent activities can be used in two different models: the Flow Model or the Interactive Model. In the flow model, the data generation stage is seen as a separate activity from the three streams; each concurrent activity operates in a somewhat linear way but all three considered together as the analysis. While in the interactive model, the three forms of analysis and the process of data collection form an 'interactive, cyclical process'. The researcher strategically and creatively moves among these elements or nodes during data collection, reduction and display (see figure 3.2). The interactive model is used in this study.

3.5.4 'Data Collection'

Here the data collection highlights the data analysis that takes place during data generation. Through a systematic literature 'survey' and study, a set of research questions was identified; specific concepts and conceptual framework (e.g. service, service learning, study service, philosophies of higher education) were also formulated. As well, through a documentary search and practical information and experiences, Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies were selected as cases for the study. This process involved a substantial amount of critical analysis of variants to settle on important components of the study such as the research questions and the conceptual framework, which forms part of the data reduction process. At this point, there was some display of the data in matrices, such as levels of data generation (table 3.3), preliminary comparison of the main features of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies (table 3.4).

Following Strauss (1987), Neuman (2003) identifies three kinds of qualitative coding that form the core of data analysis as: open coding, axial coding and selective coding. These three activities in the process are strategically linked to the interactive model. The process here could be equated to the opening coding activity (see Strauss, 1987; Flick, 2002; Neuman, 2003). Open coding is the initial activity that involves the identification of themes or concepts and assigning codes to them. Coding generally refers to the activity of organising raw information or data into sets of categories to enhance the identification of main themes or concepts in the data. According to Neuman (2003: 441), "qualitative coding is an integral part of data analysis".

Figure 3.2: The Interactive Model of Qualitative Data Analysis (Adapted from Miles and Huberman, 1994, *Qualitative Data Analysis*)



3.5.5 Data Reduction

Data reduction refers to the systematic activity of choosing, spotlighting, simplifying, and converting the raw data (e.g. field notes and transcripts). The question of where data generation starts is always a debatable issue, as all rely heavily on the researcher's study design and creativity. With the qualitative design, and in fact, the interactive analysis model adapted, the entire process is interrelated, and hence the activity of data reduction occurs at every stage of this study. Nevertheless, frankly speaking, the intensity and magnitude of the process differ from the initial to the later part of the research. By data reduction, it means transformation of the raw data generated from fieldwork: interviews (interview transcripts), documents and physical artefacts (descriptive notes) from the two cases and relevant literature. The bases for the subject matter for interviews, selection of documents, and the features to look for in artefacts were guided by themes and concepts identified in the previous interactive activity (data collection). This involved identification of patterns and themes, and categorising them (e.g. categorising information under teaching activities, research activities and community engagement activities). The activity in data reduction can be equated to the axial coding stage, where "the researcher begins with organised set of initial codes or preliminary concepts...additional codes or new ideas may emerge during" but the main purpose is to review initial codes (Neuman, 2003: 444).

3.5.6 Data display

Data display refers to the point were the data is organised, compressed and assembled to enable conclusion to be drawn. Displaying of data can be done in different ways; it could involve matrices, diagrams, graphs and/or scatter plots. In this study, textual presentation, matrices and diagrams are used. However, it is important to note that apart from assembling data for the purposes of drawing conclusions, data display has also been done at vantage points in the process to clarify the relationship between components of the research as well as indicate the entire process of the research. More importantly it is a way of making comparison explicit. For example, an initial display of features comparing Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies (table 3.4).

3.5.7 Data Reading Technique

According to Denzin (2004: 447), "In social sciences there is only interpretation. Nothing speaks for itself". This statement draws attention to the core issue of how the researcher makes sense of the pile of information generated from the fieldwork. This issue becomes more important and especially challenging when it comes to research that is anchored on interpretative approaches. How can a researcher make data speak? How should a researcher read his or her data to make it sensible, representative, and legitimate? Answers to these items are very much influenced by such factors as paradigmatic, stylistic, and cultural orientations of a researcher. The most influential could be the paradigmatic orientation, since paradigms exhibit their typical characteristics in almost every situation. Different paradigms have different ontological and epistemological stances that determine the strategy of interpreting research data (see table 2.1).

As a study anchored on constructivism, it assumes an interpretative style. Individuals' constructions are understood through interactions; these varied constructions are interpreted through conventional hermeneutics. Denzin (2004: 460) notes that constructivist analysis shares some components of grounded theory and goes further to stress: "A good constructionist interpretation (text) is based on purposive (theoretical sampling)...inductive data analysis and idiographic (contextual) interpretations". As such, the characteristics of the reading will be inductive oriented.

Three data reading strategies proposed by Mason (2002) are developed and used in this study. These reading strategies are: *Literally, Interpretively*, and *Reflexively*.

b. Literal reading involves reading that interests itself with the nature of words; understanding words exactly as they are used without any attempt to understand it metaphorically.
c. Interpretive reading refers to a form of reading that attempts to understand text based on inferences and the implicit meaning contained in the text.
d. Reflective reading concerns a type of reading where the researcher sees himself or herself as part of the data (text) being read in which understanding directly or indirectly reflects the views of the researcher as part of the data.

Although each of these strategies has its advantages and disadvantages, all are used in the analysis process. For instance, to get deep understanding of data generated from interviews (where respondents were purposively sampled) at Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies, there is a literal interpretation of the data to get the exact meanings of words as a starting point. A further interpretive reading is made to get understanding of the text based on the micro, intermediary and macro contexts of each university, as well as the situation that existed during the time of the interview. Then a reflexive reading is also done, this time basing the reading not only on the cases and their contexts, but also the experiences of the researcher as part of the process of investigation. One important role of the reflexive reading is not only to channel a researcher's views into the interpretation process but also to make critical reflections to check biases that could be crept in, to over influence the process.

3.5.8 Preliminary Themes for Comparison

- *Context situation*: socio-economic and geographical situation, at micro and intermediate levels.
- *Mission Statement*: objectives
- *Concept of Service*: what it entails
- *Teaching Activity*: curriculum – formulation and mode of delivery, supporting resources

- *Research Activity*: formulation of research agenda, type of research (basic/applied etc), main players, resources, current research, completed research.
- *Community Engagement and Entrepreneurial Activity*: type (e.g. social, economic, level of involvements, influences)
- *Resources*: human (expertise), financial and material (e.g. ICT, infrastructure)
- *Sources of Funding*: type, adequacy, initiatives, potentials
- *Structure of Institutional Organisation*: structure and role differentiation, external relations.
- *Results and Evaluation Activity*: performance (research, teaching and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities)

3.6 VERIFICATION

Verifying the accuracy of empirical materials and research findings is an essential feature in establishing scientific evidence for any research results. However, wide variations exist between quantitative and qualitative researchers on the issue of determining the goodness of a research finding (see Creswell, 1998). The concepts validity and reliability are terms used by positivist (quantitative) researchers to determine the goodness of a research finding, while qualitative researchers such as Guba and Lincoln (2000) have devised terms such as *trustworthiness* and *transferability* for the verification of the accuracy of research. Trustworthiness parallels internal validity and refers to the extent to which identified factors in a given situation explains the conditions existing in that situation. Transferability is used here to indicate the ability to pick ideas or concepts from one situation and critically analysed and adapted in another. This study adopts the stance of Guba and Lincoln (2000), which is within the constructivist paradigm (table 2.1) and uses the following strategies to verify the trustworthiness and transferability of the empirical materials collected:

1. The study uses triangulation of method (see Mason, 2002; Silverman, 2000; Miles and Huberman, 1994) to find convergence in the information collected. This involves comparing the information given by interviewees and information obtained from documents and physical artifacts. This is a potent way of verifying the accuracy of information and trustworthiness of conclusion. In addition, generation of data from different levels (macro, intermediary and micro levels) has been used to triangulate the finding, that is check the finding.
2. The study builds a logical and coherent chain of evidence from the macro, intermediary through to the micro data generated to establish solid basis for conclusion.

3. The use of peer examination (Learning Circle) to evaluate methods used and arguments advanced is also implored as a way of critiquing and working on potential lapses that surface.

3.7 ETHICAL ISSUES

According to Neuman (1994: 428) "The ethical issues are the concerns, dilemmas, and conflicts that arise over the proper way to conduct research." The issue of ethics in research have become topical in the research arena hence due attention is paid to it by every institution related to research. Ethics generally concern the overall conduct of the researcher with regards to his/her attempt to seek knowledge (truthfulness) and the issue of infringing on the rights or/and privacy of the people he/she contacts in the course of the research. In this study the measures taken to deal with ethical issues include the following:

1. The privacy of respondents and all other people contacted during the course of the study are protected and their rights respected. This is done by seeking the necessary approvals before gaining entry into sites and explaining to informants the objective of the research and all what will be done during the course of data generation. To ensure the prevalence of the highest ethics, the research has adapted a principle to keep the names of subjects anonymous; however, broad titles are mentioned without indicating the faculty, school or department of the subject.
2. Any form of plagiarism or falsification of any portion or the whole of the information collected has been avoided. Careful verification of empirical materials has also been done to safeguard the trustworthiness and authenticity of the research finding.
3. Efforts are made to maintain the utmost objectivity, make clear personal bias, and avoid any act that will tamper with the research results.
4. The data generated is used for the purpose for which it is collected and any other use that will result in causing harm to respondents or institutions is avoided. Deception of any form, whether assuming a false name, identity or role is avoided.
5. Apart from sending letters to potential interviewees, the consent of interviewees was sought (especially to tape-record) and the objective of the research stated before the commencement of interviews.

3.8 CONCLUSION

Methodology is seen as the cornerstone in every research project; the way it is understood and handled in a research project determines its (project) credibility or validity. It is argued that methodology is an important yardstick used to measure the 'scienceness' (scientific nature) of research. The main argument or dividing line between qualitative and quantitative research largely lies on the methodological orientation. As a qualitative study, this research uses interviews, documentary and physical artefacts that are not only inclined to, and generally accepted as qualitative methods of data collection, but are more appropriate to the research problem.

The research is also designed as a comparative case studies, hence requires some amount of attention to issue related to comparison and comparability. A thematic comparative method is used to compare Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies at the micro and intermediary levels, with emphasis on their contextual dynamics. Mode of data analysis is the position within the interpretative perspectives where a process of critical examination of data leads to credible conclusions. Underlying the methodology used here is a strong view of the need to maintain appropriate research ethics. The study underscores the view that ethics are the lifeblood of every research, once that is damaged the whole project is wrecked.

CHAPTER 4: UNDERSTANDING THE PLACE OF SERVICE IN HIGHER EDUCATION: VIEWS FROM LITERATURE

4. 1 INTRODUCTION

As university institutions find themselves facing new challenges in the changing context, researchers or scholars are eager to understand the possibilities and outcomes. As a result, there is relatively extensive literature on the threats, possibilities and ways forward for universities in the ensuing new context, emanating from scholars, researchers, national and organisational policy documents as well as from industry and other stakeholders. One such outcome or assumption is the evolving so-called third function of higher education: service, which is the focus of this research. Many believe that contemporary universities are becoming utilitarian institutions (e.g. Teather, 1982; Barnett, 1990; Ropke, 1998; Welle-Strand, 1999; Naidoo, 2005), highlighting and expanding the utility elements of their core academic activities. Against this backdrop, to what extent could the university functions be seen as triadic: teaching, research and service? This research is focused on examining the place of service in the academic life of the university, in other words, whether service is a function of higher education or a general concept that covers all the core activities of the university. This chapter represents analysis of the data component from general literature sources on higher education. Its purpose is to examine general literature sources to determine the place of the service concept in higher education. Hence, it carries out an overview of the history of higher education, examines the different understandings and usage of the concept, factors responsible for increase attention to service, and finally analyses the Mode 2 Knowledge Production assumption and discuss the emerging service university models.

4.2 THE MULTI-FACETED NATURE OF THE SERVICE CONCEPT

The term 'service' can assume different meanings depending on the context in which it is used, e.g. service as in the military, employment, voluntary work, or even in religion – 'Sunday Service'. In national economic sense, a nations' economy may be described as a 'service economy' if it has its major economic activities centred on the provision of 'intangible goods' such as banking, insurance, tourism and education. According to the

Oxford Encyclopedic English Dictionary, (1991: 1326) (1) service is "the act of helping or doing work for another or for a community etc". Notwithstanding the different uses of the concept, the common element that runs through is the notion or idea of performing an act beneficial to another. Service in this sense is general and straight forward, involving an act that links a provider and a receiver. However, the complexity and dynamics involved in this 'act of helping' could be extensive or multiple. The presumed status of the provider and the receiver, the nature of help offered and the legitimacy and compulsion attached to the 'help' are some of the issues that could generate some form of complexity.

In the field of higher education, the service concept can be ambiguous and contestable (see OECD, 1982; Ward, 2003). National policies may differ on this (such as between the more developed and developing) and more so higher education institutions have different views about what service is, the service roles of their institutions and how it should be performed (Bowden & Marton, 1998). Furthermore, views expressed in literature about what actually the meaning of the concept 'service' is, has been unspecific and context-bounded. Nevertheless, what is known is that service in higher education is not new and even existed before the establishment of the American Land Grant colleges, which many view as founded based on service to the wider society.

In one sense, service could mean all the support a university offers to its external community and the internal support academic and non-academic staff give through the involvement in institutional governance roles, customer service, integrated learning, collegial virtue and civil duty (see Hatfield, 1989; Boyer, 1997; Perold and Omar, 1997; Bringle and Hatcher, 2000; Tight, 2002; Ward, 2003; Macfarlane, 2005). This view seems to reflect the very wide nature of the scope of service and its interconnectedness. It concentrates more on the activities that directly offer some support and benefit in the context of application both within and outside the university. Administrative activities, both at university and faculty levels, activities carried out by support staff to keep the core activities of the university on course, and all the activities of faculty to support colleagues are within the remit of this notion. Learning and teaching activities are integrated, whereby they are organised to meet identified community needs. This means that the traditional on-campus classroom teaching and learning activities (e.g. lecture) may be excluded from the scope of service, especially where they have no direct link to identified practical needs of a given community. This perspective does not hold strongly on a view that such services amount to an emerging function of higher education besides teaching and research, but emphasises the idea of integrating higher education activities to reflect identified needs of community. The view here may be similar to the notion of service as a wide range of scholarly activities that support teaching and research (the 'inverted donut'). However, as stated earlier in chapter one, the core activities of the university will be analysed in three dimensions: teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities. The notion of service in the above view may be arbitrary place under community engagement (internal and external).

In another sense, university service could be seen as "the delivery, installation, and maintenance of knowledge-based applications to clients wherever they may be" (Cummings, 1999: 223). This view seems to see service as that part of university activities that concentrates on the organisation of university knowledge-based resources not only to meet the needs of the entire society but of specific interest groups and individuals in the society – the clients, in sustainable ways. This means that conventional teaching and learning and basic research activities, which do not have direct application to identified community needs, are functions in themselves different from the service function. Service in this context is based on the assumption that because of increasing financial pressure and constraints on universities, they are compelled to 'commodify' their knowledge-based resources to generate funds to meet these challenges. This perspective may be put under the entrepreneurial activities of the university.

Against the background of this varied understanding and use of the concept, this research is focused on examining the part of the notion that sees service as a function besides teaching and research, since this view is broad and an examination of it is likely to touch on the other areas. Hence, the intention of this research is not to find out or to determine an academic definition of the concept of service, but understand it in a context in which university core activities (teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial) are structured and carried out in the context of application, in other words, to respond to the needs and desires of its context: government, industry and society. It is to examine service not only in the context of the university but within the assumption that it is a function of higher education besides teaching and research. Further, it is to understand its scope and place in the academic life of the university; in other words to have an understanding of whether it is a function of the university besides teaching and learning and research or a broad concept that covers all the core activities in the university.

4.3 SERVICE OF HIGHER EDUCATION: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Historically, higher learning existed as early as in the 3rd Century B. C in the famous Museum and Library of the city of Alexandria (Ajayi et al, 1996), as well as in Greek city states characterised by Plato's Academy which trained the guardians of the republic (Barnett, 1990). Nevertheless, organised higher education started in the medieval period with the creation of universities at Bologna, Paris and Oxford. The medieval university had a basic function of training people for some areas of the society such as the church, law and medicine professions, done in the form of teaching and scholarly work. University education had catered for elite groups and more profoundly oriented towards intellectuality (see Kerr, 1995; Delanty, 2001; Jarvis, 2001), in this case, the 'service?' provided by higher education was limited in some degree to the intellectual development of some individuals and to some extent a limited group of the society, initially the clergy, e.g. the Jesuit Colleges of Europe. Such activities could be placed under the teaching activity of the university carried out as service. These functions evolved as the context in which the university operated changed. In this connection, Martin and Etzkowitz (2000: 16) note:

"With regard to teaching, there emerge two relative distinct types of teaching function, one being to develop the full potential of the individual student, and the other to produce trained people with the knowledge and skills that were useful for society, be they priests, administrators, physicians or whatever. Scholarship also evolved over time with two fairly fundamental changes...scholarship was broadened to include the creation of new knowledge – in other words 'research' – as well as the re-analysis and synthesis of existing knowledge. Secondly, a distinction emerged between two types of research – knowledge 'for its own sake' as opposed to knowledge to meet the needs of society."

In the colonised world, similar but different situations occurred. For instance in colonised America, higher education was modelled after the European orientation, though more inclined to the British form; it quickly developed into a unique system. According to Ward (2003: 18) "From its inception, higher education in the American colonies had as its focus socialisation of the young for positions of leadership in the church, education in the classics and Christian doctrine, and ultimately, preparation of students as public servants". Even though the university had always been involved in community affairs, later development indicated movement from service directed to religion, to other areas of society (such as the state and industry) especially with the advent of research universities and the enactment of the Morrill Act in 1862 that was instrumental in supporting the Land Grant Colleges.

Elsewhere, other colonies developed 'organised'[6] higher education systems later, especially of British colonies in Africa and the West Indies under the auspices of the Asquith and Elliot Commissions[7], developed as a replica of the British system (see Graham, 1971; McWilliams and Kwamina-po, 1975; Effah, 2002). The function of such universities was initially to train the local people to assist in the administration of the colonies, and later to prepare natives who could take over colonial administration because of growing political agitations for independence. In this case, the function of higher education was largely influenced by the context in which it operated; first to serve the colonial government and later to prepare individuals to take the mantle after independence; hence, the crucial purpose was to meet certain challenges in society.

Generally, a significant influence on the functions and development of the university was its changing relations with key external stakeholders/actors, initially the church, later the state, industry and other non-university institutions. These influences directly or indirectly shaped universities into different species (research, teaching, public, private, etc), with two distinct orientations to the purpose of higher education: knowledge for its own sake and knowledge for utilitarian purpose.

Relating the above to the question of whether service is a function of university or not, it is clear that behind the medieval university's teaching and learning (whether aimed at received or revealed knowledge or the development of critical thinking), and research, there seemed to have always been a focus on the society which this function was meant to serve. According to Jarvis (2001: 3), "From the earliest times, the most powerful institutions in society have established universities for their own ends. The churches in Europe where among the earliest institutions to do so." The Church set up these institutions to train people

[6] According to Ajayi et al (1996), Delanty (2001) and Riad (1981) forms of higher education existed distinct from the European model, but were stagnated in scholasticism such as Chinese, Greek, Islamic and Hindu schools.

who where to be competent and knowledgeable to take leadership positions, as clergy in the Church. Even during the Enlightenment, which challenged the power of the Church, there was a definite function of higher education: the emphasis on empirical scientific knowledge, rationality and reason, and individualism among other things; were directed at the nurturing the freedom of the individual. The result was the industrial revolution, then capitalism as a central force in society (see Hamilton, 1992; Jarvis, 2001). Hence all these activities in their totality pointed to service in a limited scale, or in disguise. In contemporary era, the interrelationship between service on the one hand and teaching and research as core academic activities on the other is more complex than presently understood and requires deep analysis to understand. Universities are now beginning to see themselves as 'corporate organisations' with the students being considered as 'clients' or 'customers', while research is organised around funding directives (geared towards satisfying the external sponsor) and industrial specifications. The difference in service engagement between the medieval higher education and the current is that the later is on a massive scale involving a wide dimension of interests.

In analysing this against the fact that the university service could be directed to either individuals or group of individuals within the society, or better still the entire society, the teaching and research functions (traditional functions) can arguably be termed as service. Service directed to certain individuals, small elite groups (such as in medieval times), businesses or the public are certainly forms of services of a kind. The contestation, therefore, is the appropriateness or otherwise of the services (appropriateness to whom?[8]), not a question of the presence of service as an integral part of the university teaching and research activities. Hence, in the earliest form of higher education delivery, the core activities were practiced implicitly and/or explicitly as forms of service to specific groups of people.

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[7] These commissions where set up by Britain, the colonial master, to determine how higher education could be organised in the colonies.

[8] This was a question asked by Professor Trevor Corner (SLLE) in one of our discussion sessions.

4.4 EXAMINING PRACTICES RELATED TO SERVICE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Practices related to service may be categorised or classified in different ways. These could be based on the internal and external nature of the services, i.e. whether the receiver is within the university or outside the university; another could be based on the relative academic or non-academic orientation of the services. Classifications could also be based on how direct or indirect the service is to the beneficiary, or whether it is a voluntary or a paid service. However, teaching, research and community engagement activities are largely at the forefront of university operations. Having reflected upon the general services in higher education, this section will discuss specific practices that purports to give the service dimension in teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial contexts. In this respect, the following concepts would be discussed: *study service*; *service learning*; *lifelong learning; applied research and community service.*

4.4.1 Study Service

In a UNESCO study, which sought to encourage innovation in higher education delivery for development by making it closer to the needs of society, 'study service' is defined as "activities carried out by students for the benefit of the community which are regarded as part of their vocational and civic training" (UNESCO, 1984: 1). The idea of study service was first introduced in socialist countries as a response to specific developmental problems but it was in the 1960s that it had significant development. The 1980s UNESCO perception of the concept was based on the context of the general growing interest in the relationship between education and work by both the developed and developing countries across the globe, which was expressed in various conferences it organised for the various regional groups. The core of the concept as expressed by UNESCO, emphasis on relevance of higher education to community needs. It states: "society cannot go on investing large sums in higher education when it has so little to show for it" (Ibid: 3). Even though more defined on the basis of vocational and civic training, study service was viewed as covering the entire activities of higher education when it stated: "From the stand point of the academic system itself, study-service activities should be viewed from the angle of higher education policy as a whole, which is geared to the needs of society" (Ibid: 11). Presently, UNESCO's focus on higher education seems to be more on lifelong learning, because of the so-called emerging knowledge society, which is inextricably linked, to the idea of making higher education serve the needs of society in more innovative and sustainable ways.

During the 1990s the concept proliferated in the work of the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) based in the UK, attributed to its founder, Dr Alec Dickson which he later described as the 'human application of knowledge' (Hatfield 1989). After an overview of how the study service worked in a number of countries, Dickson underscored the need to tap the vast opportunities in British universities to complement the valuable but less expert contributions of voluntary work to community service. Hatfield (1989: 3) in a project report for CSV on study service in higher education conceives the concept as activities that "specifically identify and translate community needs into projects which contain sufficient academic content to allow the student to carry out the assignment as part of his or her accessed course". Within this framework of understanding of the study service concept, emphasis is placed on the intellectual development of the student along with the community benefits it brings.

Study service has been particularly prevalent in developing countries, such as in Cuba, which even extend such services to other developing countries like Ghana in its medical programme. In the more advanced countries, study service operates under different rubrics; 'service learning' as in the US and to some extent placement or work-based learning in the UK and Australia, but England (UK) may be particularly noted for study service. Nevertheless, study service illustrates one important point, that the teaching function is part of the service engagement of the university, rather than being one of the functions besides teaching and research.

4.4.2 Service Learning

The concept 'service learning' has comparatively large amount of definitions when considered from the historical point of view of service and learning in higher education (Reams, 2003). However, the core idea in most of these definitions concentrates on linking academic work in the teaching and learning process to service to the society. According to Bringle and Hatcher (2000: 274) service learning is "a course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which students (a) participate in an organised service activity that meets identified community needs and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility". Service learning and study service seem to be very similar concepts coming from different academic traditions – the two sides of the Atlantic. Service learning is currently an important concept in the debate over the real purpose and mode of delivery in higher education in the US, while study service is more associated with the UK, with the limited literature found coming mostly from there. In the US there is a growing literature on this concept (see Jacoby, 1996; Boyer, 1997; Gray et al, 1999; Bringle and Hatcher, 2000; Reams, 2003; Ward, 2003), unlike the study service which seems to be escaping the attention of scholars, or has simply just been transformed into different rubrics: work based learning, placement?

The renewed interest of trying to make higher education meet the needs of society has had a greater influence in pointing the spotlight to service learning, hence many higher education institutions are increasingly emphasising service as an integral part of higher education (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000).

Like the study service, service learning focuses on students' service to the community rather than the teaching staff. Some form of service is located in this teaching and learning activity, the effectiveness or otherwise of the service is always the issue. Some scholars, especially among faculty, are very sceptical about the benefits of study service and service learning. They note, "service waters down the curriculum, further weakening the quality of higher education" (Gray et al, 1999).

4.4.3 Lifelong learning/work-based learning

Lifelong learning, as currently referred to, has a history that dates back to the 1960s, but has become very prominent in recent higher education debate (Withnall, 2000; Kallen, 2002). Lifelong learning is an idea of creating learning opportunities for people to learn throughout their lifetime, both at the compulsory and post-compulsory stages (Green, 2000). The higher education scene has witnessed the development of innovative teaching and learning arrangements such as distance education, work-based learning, extended university campus (international campuses) and e-learning, and also university models such as virtual universities (e.g. Open University in the UK) and corporate higher education institutions.

One explicit engagement of lifelong learning in higher education is work based learning. Learning and work have always been inseparable partners in the practical sense since time immemorial (Abukari, 2005); any particular kind of work (especially skilled work) in many cases requires some form of learning, likewise through work some form of learning also takes place. Work-based learning is another university delivery strategy that is gaining prominence in many advanced countries especially the UK and Australia. This appears as continuing education, distance education, and problem-based learning in some other countries (Sweden – distance education), and also in many development ones, such as in Nigeria and Ghana and some countries in Asia. In the UK the need to bring higher education closer to the needs of the society was felt, and during the 1980s and early 90s several policy papers and initiatives reflected the need for work-based learning (Gallacher and Reeve, 2000).

According to Boud and Solomon (2001: 4) work based learning is "a class of university programmes that bring together universities and work organisations to create new learning opportunities in work places. Such programmes meet the needs of learners, contribute to the longer term development of the organisation and are formally accredited as university courses". The view here is production and utility oriented and typical of the economic capital perspective. It is also a reflection of the contemporary demand on higher education to be sensitive to every sector of the emerging knowledge society. This is in line with the objective of creating a knowledge society (EC, 2000) and a development that is increasingly blurring the differentiation between what is teaching, research or service, as well as diminishing the boundary line between the university, state and industry (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 2000). To some, this is one of the characteristics of the twenty-first century university (World Bank, 2003; Bowden and Marton, 1998); to others it signifies crisis and an undermining of the university as a centre for critical learning (Graham, 2002; Taylor et al, 2002). Barnett (1990: 3) states: "It is a crisis to do with the way that we understand higher education, the fundamental principles on which the idea of higher education has traditionally stood, and the way in which this principles are undermined".

Nonetheless, work-based learning is one of the innovative ways through which higher education offers service to society. The service involves both the teaching and learning and research aspects of the university; teaching and learning could be direct or through e-learning/distance, and at the same time there is some form of research, sometimes collaborative involving organisations (work-based learning students) and the university (teaching and research staff). Whatever form and nature of the interaction between the university and the student in this case, there is, at least, a form of service going on. This service is not free of the teaching, learning and the research component of the university, but there is a complex interconnection, interdependence and interplay between the two.

4.4.4 Applied Research

While the above practices are mainly within teaching and learning, research remains an essential component of many higher education institutions missions today, and seems to increasingly being directed towards reflecting the needs of society.

Generally, research can be viewed as basic or applied: basic (pure) research has the generation of knowledge as its main objective while applied research has an objective of the generation of knowledge for specific, practical use. Whether seen as basic or applied research, current literature shows the blurring boundaries of these two categories of research (See Verma & Mallick, 1999; Oosterlinck et al, 2002). Despite this, there is increased involvement in applied research due the importance of science for industrial and economic competition and its role in meeting social needs (Commission of the European Communities, 2004).

Studies also claim an increased separation of research from teaching due to the specialisation of research towards industrial relevance (Delanty, 2001). Accordingly, "research has become overly specialised and often irrelevant to the needs of students...it is not the established disciplines that define the boundaries of knowledge but the context of the application of research, with target constituencies and user groups calling the shots" (Ibid: 110). It is certainly a fact that knowledge is becoming context-specific and more geared towards problem solving; moving from mode 1 to mode 2 (Gibbons et al, 1994). This demonstrates the current increased emphasis on applied research over basic research. On the other hand, there is also an acknowledged increase in the overall enrolment level of research students, particularly at PhD level, in recent times more as an outcome of current increasing trend in higher education institutions involvement in lifelong learning programmes such as work-based learning (Jarvis, 2001). Many of these students come from industry and professional entities which indicates the continuing close relationship between teaching and research (though not necessarily on disciplinary basis), at least at the postgraduate level.

In the contemporary era, Research is also used as one of the criteria by which to rate higher education institutions within nations and in the international arena. This is usually based on how practical or explicit research findings of individual institutions are influencing or have influenced contemporary interests. The argument being advanced here is that, research, in other words knowledge production, is being done in the context of application, hence inextricably linked to the phenomenon of serving the needs of the society, especially against the increasing involvement in applied research.

4.4.5 Community Service

Some scholars have used the concept 'community service' as a broader term to encompass all community-linked university activities (Perold & Omar, 1997; Marullo, 1995). In this connection, Perold & Omar (1997) content that community service involves programmes that are linked to higher education, involving participants in activities designed to deliver social benefits to a particular community in manners that teach the participants to work jointly towards achieving the common goal. They further point out that the concept is so broad that it extends to include services that are academic or non-academic, voluntary or compulsory, paid or unpaid, and involving teachers or students. However, they exclude such activities whose main purpose is job training or placement which are designed to serve their participants rather than the community. Nevertheless, the main disjunction in their assertion or argument is the fact that, in almost all the activities that fall within their definition of 'community service', there exists a dimension of both personal and community benefits. For instance, paid service to the community has a clear benefit to the participant beside that of the community. Many also stress the benefits of such programmes to the participant such as the fostering of social responsibility in the youth (Jacoby, 1996) and academic benefits such as in service learning (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000, Ward, 2003). These contradictions still point to the complex and problematic nature of the location of the service concept in higher education context.

In analysis, community service may be viewed as part of the community engagement and entrepreneurial activities of the university, which cover other core activities of the university besides teaching and research, and usually considered by some as the service function of the university. Such activities may include voluntary work, business with community and extracurricular and non-academic programmes carried out to offer some form of support to internal and/or external community of the university such as student placement/attachment.

4.4.6 Dimensions of service practices

An overview of practices related to service in the university shows that the practices operate in different ways and impact on different beneficiaries. Literature sources indicate that the origin of the concept of service is basically Western as the idea of higher education itself is Western and developed over a period of time. Generally, service could operate in different ways such as direct/indirect, public/private, rhetoric/non-rhetoric. The direct can be understood from practices such as in study service and service learning discuss earlier; these involve activities that are carried out by students which directly benefits the community and recognised as service duties or credit-bearing educational experiences. The indirect form of service may be interpreted as the general higher education training given to individuals which is expected to benefit them and the larger society in future life. Service could also be interpreted in terms of its public and private dimension, for example work-based learning is one of the strategies through which universities in the UK implement the government policy of widening participation which creates opportunity for many people to access higher education training. At the same time, work-based learning also has a private dimension in which universities work with business organisations in areas of continuous professional development (CPD) and also individual clients on private projects. Another aspect of service is the rhetoric/non-rhetoric dimension of it; many higher education institutions have explicit mission statements that state clearly the services they offer; such as the claim to provide programmes that are relevant to industry and guarantee students immediate jobs after completion. In many cases these claims have been rhetoric rather than realities because students complete universities only to be told that they need specific skills to go into formal work. Another example of this is higher education institutions in developing countries such as in Ghana in which policies are directed towards making university education reflect the needs of society, yet core activities are academic oriented and irrelevant to the needs of the country. Detail analysis of the dimensions of interpretation of the service concept will be presented later in Chapter Nine.

4.5 POSSIBLE FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR INCREASED SERVICE ENGAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

As stated earlier, the context in which higher education operates has had some profound changes over the last three or four decades, but the changes that occurred from the last quarter of the twentieth century till the present time have been faster and more dramatic (Scott, 1995; Castells, 2000). These changes have shaped out into forces, which, directly or indirectly resulted in pushing higher education institutions towards relevant service (see Cummings, 1998; Ward, 2003). Two main factors underlie these developments: globalisation and open access to higher education (massification). However, these factors are discussed under five interrelated headings as follows: the rising cost of higher education; issues of accountability; the rise of the knowledge society; the craving for development; and the rise in alternative higher education providers.

4.5.1 Rising cost of higher education

Running higher education institutions have been acknowledged as becoming very costly (also echoed by World Bank, 2000; Ward, 2003) and traditional sources of funding have become virtually insufficient (see Clark, 1998) to handle the cost involved. Even though there is a claim of relative slowing down of the flow of public funds into higher education in some cases, the state is still the major source of funding for public higher education. Many public universities all over the world are faced with this challenge of rising costs and are forced to consider other ways of supplementing their finances. While universities need to expand to cope with the increasing demand for places, which means infrastructure and other facilities (laboratory equipment and materials) need to be increased to be able to effectively cope with the rise; state funding is acknowledgeable not proportionate to these expansions in many cases (Clark, 1998, 2004; Tjeldvoll, 2000). Against this backdrop, some universities have developed new ways specifically to generate extra funds to supplement their finances (Jarvis, 2001). This move is not only wide spread in the western world, but is a growing phenomenon in some universities in developing countries, notably Mekerere University in Uganda (see Clark, 2004).

4.5.2 Issues of accountability

Because of the rising cost in higher education, stakeholders and financiers are calling for accountability from institutions, in terms of questions of relevance and responsiveness of the systems to the needs of society. One such call was made by the UNESCO in 1984 when it stated that society can no longer invest large sums into higher education if it fails to demonstrate its worth for it. Institutional autonomy and academic freedom used to be the hallmark of the university (Brubacher, 1982). Higher education institutions and academics had a relatively extensive freedom in constructing teaching curricula and involving in any research of particular importance to the university or to individual academics (see Ward, 2003). In the present circumstance, there is a general feeling that this autonomy once enjoyed has diminished to considerable levels[9]; institutions and individual academics now operate within some guidelines, more or less dictated by national policies, public concerns, industry, and the desire to involve in activities that will win funded research projects. Hence, the situation has led to institutional involvements and commitments that in most instances are relevant to societal needs, as signs to demonstrate their usefulness to society.

4.5.3 The rise of the 'Knowledge Society'

Science and technology has advanced over the last thirty years or so and almost every sector of the more developed world is directly or indirectly connected to this new advancement, even though at different levels and rates (see Gibbons et al, 1994; Castells, 2000; Nowotny). In the developing world where such advancement is slow, the awareness and craving to achieve similar goals is in the policy agenda of many governments. In this new dispensation, everything about the society is related to knowledge (Jarvis, 2001). The society deals with knowledge in many varied ways, and higher education institutions are challenged to deal decisively and effectively with these varied ways. Even though this is not the case in some developing societies, most societies are ardently craving to catch up in this direction. Knowledge is becoming a central element in all areas of society's life, especially in the more developed world. Most western societies are becoming knowledge-based societies and, as such, industry and economies are demanding higher levels of qualifications and knowledge from their new employees (see Ibid). The state, other corporate organisations, and private groups and individuals in the society have demonstrated this fact. Against this background, Castells (2000) argues that the modern world is increasingly becoming networked – institutions, alliances, languages (English especially), etc are increasingly becoming interconnected. The university as an important social institution is not left out in this regards. As a results, the university "has not just become embroiled with networks that hook it to the wider world but it has also come to understand itself through competing frameworks of self-understanding...not just to do more things but also to do things that have their place in those competing networks" (Barnett, 2003: 35-6). Within such competing frameworks of self-understanding, the university is put in a crucial position to define itself and its role to meet the demands of these competing forces to remain central and relevant to every component of the knowledge society.

4.5.4 The Craving for Development

Presently, every society in the world today seems to acknowledge and accept the notion that knowledge has the power to change people's lives for the better. Ironically, this has always been the case; yet educational policies directed to this assumption, especially in some developing countries, seemed to have failed due to socio-political and economic reasons. Despite this, developing countries still underscore the role of higher education in bringing development. Ajayi et al (1996) also expressed a similar view when they noted that the foundation and overall efforts of the African university should be directed towards a service that would bring about the needed development in the continent. The argument that higher education is pivotal in the effective and sustainable development of any society has been in recent times articulated by international donor organisations notably the World Bank (1999, 2000) which ironically was an arch opponent of investing in higher education especially in developing countries (see Brock-Utne, 2003). The desire, therefore, to use higher education as an engine for national development in developing nations has tended to push higher education policy towards the service orientation.

4.5.5 The rise in alternative higher education providers

Last but not the least, the massification of higher education that created an increased demand for places, the expansion of business and commerce into a number of non-traditional sectors such as higher education, the creation of the so-called 'knowledge society', and globalisation (see Tight, 2003; Dalanty, 2001) may be jointly accountable for

[9] However, this could also be interpreted as enhancing the freedom of academics in able to deal with varied societal issues rather than limited to self-interest issues directed or influenced by the notion of disinterested academic legacy.

the increasing number of alternative higher education institutions. Historically, universities started as private institutions founded and ran by private entities (e.g. the church) and later the church and the state (Brubacher, 1982; Kerr, 1995, Jarvis, 2001). However, the turn of the century witnessed the rise of private and for-profit higher education institutions (see World Bank, 2003); with the US noted as being at the forefront of this – many notable universities in the US are private ones, and growing numbers of 'for-profit' higher education institutions (Newton, 2002). Relating to Barnett (2000), Tight (2003: 4) notes: "Higher education is now, therefore, 'big business', as well as being increasingly connected to other businesses in the public and private sectors", hence there is a sense of competition among higher education providers who try to modify their 'goods/services' to reflect the needs of the 'customers/clients'. This competition has resulted in the reorientation of university mission statements and institutional policies towards issues that are of particular use to the current context.

4.6 THE MODE 2 KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION: UNDERSTANDING THE PLACE OF SERVICE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The status of knowledge as a fundamental element of society is not a new idea; every civilisation acknowledges and upholds the role of knowledge as an important element in guaranteeing its future and existence, however, the difference between civilisations about this idea may be located in the type of knowledge and the dimension in which the knowledge pervaded the society. In the case of the current civilisation, scientific knowledge has pervaded every aspect of society, becoming central in shaping social structures, economies, and more importantly, its production becoming reflexive and context-bounded in radically varied ways. Through technological advancement, the world is now more connected than ever, networking societies both locally and internationally, and making the world a 'global village'; at least to the more developed societies. As major site for knowledge production, dissemination and training, higher education is restructuring and changing its nature as a response to the changing context in which it now operates. Furthermore, the democratisation of higher education, which Scott (1995) terms 'massification' of higher education, where there is a massive increased access to and participation in higher learning is changing its nature from elite to mass system. Against this background, several propositions have been put forward about an evolving nature of knowledge and its production; one of such theses is the 'Mode 2 Knowledge Production' thesis (Gibbons et al, 1994), which is examined in the light of the objective of this research.

4.6.1 The Mode 2 Knowledge Production

The authors of the 'Mode 2 Knowledge' thesis argue that there is a fundamental change in the way knowledge is being produced. This, they say, is as a result of interrelated factors: globalisation and democratisation of access to higher education. The advancement in science and technology (information technology) has created network organisations and firms across the globe, with knowledge as a central part, innovation at its forefront and referred to as the 'global economy' and/or the 'knowledge economy'. In addition, this technological advancement has affected social structures and is developing a kind of society which some term the 'knowledge society', a society organised around the dissemination and production of knowledge and their efficient usage in all aspects of societal life. This has created a challenge to universities to change to reflect these developments; leading to new structures and methods of higher education delivery. Furthermore, the commitment of western governments after WW2 to reduce social inequality among the populace led to policies that radically enhanced the access and participation levels in higher education. The outcome was that more professionals were turned out than the formal system could engage, hence professionals working outside the formal university system (working with industry) teamed up in different ways and work informally to deal with knowledge in the context of application.

The Mode 2 Knowledge argument is based on conventional methods of knowledge production (Mode 1) in which knowledge is produced within a framework of methods, values and norms that guide scientific research. In Mode 1, the basis of what knowledge should be produced or taught is based on the interests of academics within a particular discipline or community, which invariably strengthens disciplinary boundaries. Furthermore, the university or higher education maintains a monopoly over the process, which usually acts as the main site where these activities take place. The quality of knowledge and/or its imparting is determined by the community of scholars who are attested as being knowledgeable in the discipline and fit to make judgement.

In contrast, in the Mode 2, knowledge production is carried out in the context of application in which it is trans-disciplinary, problem-centred, heterogeneous, heterarchical, socially accountable and reflexive in nature. The basis of any knowledge produced is situated within a problem context, where the outcome is the solution of the problem. Under the Mode 2, disciplinary boundaries become thin or blurred, there is cross-disciplinary interaction directed at solving the focal problem. The process is usually collaborative, between partners or interest groups and located at multiple sites, with little or no limits. Quality is controlled and judged by additional set of determinants, which range from intellectual to political, economic and economic interests. The basis of quality being by the level at which the knowledge produced solves the problem on which its production is based.

Table 4.1: Comparing Mode 1 and Mode 2 Knowledge Production (Adapted from Kraak, 2000, *Changing Modes: New Knowledge Production and its Implications for Higher Education in South African*)

MODE 1	MODE 2
Knowledge is produced in a context governed by academic interests of specific community	Knowledge is produced in the context of application.
Knowledge is carried out in the absence of practical goal.	Knowledge is intended to be useful to someone: government, industry or society
control by individual academics' interests	Negotiated with interest groups
Process is within disciplinary boundaries	Trans-disciplinary
Homogeneity: university usually the main centre for knowledge production	Heterogeneity: there is increased and varied places of knowledge production
Quality control by peer review judgements	Socially accountable and reflexive

Although this assumption is based on socio-political analysis, it demonstrates the extent to which universities core activities integrate to co-mingle with its context, in other words it shows how the core activities of the university are carried out to reflect the needs and aspiration of its context. Research activities are not discipline centred, but problem-centred, carried out in multiple locations (not limited to the university as an entity) and within the scope of what can be termed outreach, teaching, and learning activities. Furthermore, the Mode 2 reading has not claimed a complete shift from Mode 1 to Mode 2, but acknowledges the existence of elements of the former that operate along side with the later, which sometimes complement each other. Nevertheless, some scholars criticise the claim of the 'Mode 2' thesis as having a narrow view of the dynamics and complexity involved in the scientific process of knowledge production that could open the system to dangerous manipulations (Pestre, 2003).

4.6.2 Features of Mode 2 in Contemporary Universities

The proliferation of Mode 2 in universities has radically changed their nature and characteristics, as illustrated in Table 4.2. This is generally because of the changing context of the university that requires universities to respond to market forces, society concerns about its contribution to societal development, and decreasing state support among other things. There is a gradual change from basing core academic activities of teaching and research on established cognitive and social norms to organising such activities as a response to the needs and desires of the market and society as a whole in the 'traditional' and 'contemporary' universities respectively. According to Scott (1995), four major changes have occurred in the academic structure of the university; changing from disciplined-based to programme-based, from subject-based teaching to student-based learning, from courses to modular-based credits and from emphasis of knowledge acquisition to the development of competency skill where knowledge can be operationalised in practical situations.

Apart from this, the university, which used to be the unchallenged major site for knowledge production, dissemination and training, is now being challenged due to the increased number of varied and informal places (e.g. industry) where these activities are carried out. There is now a sense of competition for the university to reaffirm its place in this dispensation. The nature of the mode of delivery, which used to be mainly residential within the rigid boundaries of the university, has widened to include different varied ways such as distance learning and work based learning. This has resulted in an extended access to wide variety of people of different social class, age and occupation. There is also increased collaboration of universities with external partners and stakeholders, particularly industry and government which has further blurred the once defined and rigid boundaries of the university (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 2000). Traditional sources of funds for universities such as the state are becoming unreliable and competitive due to mismatch of traditional sources with cost of delivery, and the introduction of stringent measures by governments in the awarding of funds to universities, especially in advanced countries. This situation has led to a change from complete dependence on state for funding as in the traditional universities to diverse sources such as industry and other sources, however, in many cases, the state remains a major source. Universities have identified potential clients and have tailored their activities to meet their needs and desires.

Against this background, the issue of quality in universities have become ambiguous with the introduction of additional criteria by which it is judged. In the traditional university, quality of teaching and research is guided by strict traditional scientific norms and values such as peer review process; in contrast, the contemporary university uses variety of criteria, taking cognisance of the broad interests of partners and stakeholders – intellectual, economic, political and social. Generally, quality is judged on the extent to which a particular core activity has reflected or led to the resolution of the contextual issue on which that activity is based.

Despite the fact of the emerging Mode 2 features in universities, elements of the traditional features are to a larger extent in operation, especially in many universities in developing countries who were established within the elites colonial tradition passed to them. In Ghana, for instance, despite the usual policy rhetoric of making higher education delivery responsive to the developmental needs of the nation, higher education institutions, especially the 'traditional' public universities, still exhibit the elite characteristics of academic-oriented and cognitive-situated delivery, passing students through sets of learning activities that are usually practically irrelevant to contemporary challenges of the country. Although, the characteristics of the Mode 2 Knowledge in most developing contexts is still not visible, its emergence is only a matter of time and space, when global demands would push them to change.

4.6.3 Implication of Mode 2 Knowledge for Place of Service in Universities

What implications have the assumptions about the Mode 2 Knowledge thesis had in understanding the place of service in the academic life contemporary universities? This can provide several signposts through which the position of service could be understood. On one hand, it can be argued that such an analysis may offer little insight into understanding the place of service due to the absences of direct links of the Mode 2 thesis to the entire core activities of the university, especially teaching. Apart from that, it is an assumption, a description not based on empirical material, and its conclusions are based on review done on contemporary developments. Such a claim may not have sufficient evidence to allow for use in making conclusions on other issues.

Table 4.2: 'Traditional' and 'Contemporary' Universities Compared[10] (Adapted from Welle-Strand, 1999 'Quality of knowledge production in higher education)

'Traditional'[11] University	'Contemporary/Non-traditional'[12] University
Academic activities (teaching and research) based on cognitive and social norms	Academic activities usually a response to society and market
Based on disciplines	Based on programmes
University usually the main site of knowledge production - limited competition	Increased and varied places for production of knowledge - Competition
Mode of delivery of core activities are residential within the rigid boundaries of the university	Diverse modes of delivery including residential, distance, work-based
Limited collaboration with external partners	Increased collaboration with industry, government and society
Decentralised choice of teaching curriculum and research agenda	Centrally moderated teaching curriculum
Restricted access, mostly to elite middle class which results in limited participation	Extended access to diverse learners with regards to age, social class, occupation which has led to increased participation
Funding mainly from state	Diverse sources: state, industry, fees
Quality control by peer review	Quality control by varied interest groups; intellectual, economic, social and political

[10] See section 10.3 (chapter 10) for a critical review of this table based on evidence from fieldwork.
[11] Traditional used to indicate university based on the Mode 1 Knowledge model. Contemporary used to indicate university based on the Mode 2 knowledge model
[12] Contemporary or Non-traditional used to indicate university based on the Mode 2 knowledge model.

On the other hand, despite some criticism of the Mode 2 thesis, it can serve as a valid framework through which analysis of other relevant issues can be carried out (e.g. Etzkowitz, and Leydesdorff, 2000; Jansen, 2000), and there is sufficient evidence to authenticate the claims made. It has a wide reading, acknowledgement and citation among scholars around the world for its contribution in drawing an analytical framework through which contemporary knowledge production and changing nature of higher education can be understood (see Kraak, 2000). The thesis draws on valid examples from experience, literature, practical occurrences, and real life situations to explicate its claim. Apart from this, the propositions made converge with earlier and later empirical studies about the challenges and changes that are occurring in the way knowledge is produced, disseminated, and used in an increasingly networking society (see Kuhn, 1970; Etzkowitz, and Leydesdorff, 2000; Castells, 2000). Last but not the least, the theme of the Mode 2 thesis may be said to be based on the changing nature and functions of higher education due to the changing context in which it now operates. Against this backdrop, the Mode 2 thesis can be said to be sufficiently linked to the theme of this research, and hence can provide bases through which the place of service in the university can be understood.

Based on the background of challenges higher education institutions are facing such as the pressure to look for funds to supplement their budgets, because of disproportions between state funding and cost of delivery (with the later being higher), the evolving knowledge economy in which knowledge has become an important commodity, and the call by major stakeholders such as governments and society for higher education to be more reflective to their needs, most universities core activities of teaching and research are organised in the context of application. Institutional policies and practices on teaching and research are increasingly being based explicitly on the needs and expectations of stakeholders; the designing of programmes and curricula, modes of delivery and research agendas and areas demonstrate these traits. They are usually seen as a response to the needs of society. Similarly, areas for research are now tailored to the specifications of stakeholders rather than limiting it to the interests of individual academics. The evolving nature of core academic activities of teaching and research indicate that they are now seen as service activities to serve the needs and desires of stakeholders, rather than as functions different from service.

Similarly, community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are springing up, especially community engagement, that traditionally used to be more of volunteering work in communities is increasingly becoming entrepreneurial where institutional engagements are directly or indirectly geared towards making financial gains. Voluntary work is now more of a student vacation activity which in most cases has an underlying aim of preparing students for later job opportunities (CV enhancement). Entrepreneurial activities in higher education institutions are being considered seriously, setting up spin-off companies and enterprises. For instance, many higher education institutions in the United Kingdom have created new positions such as 'Director for Business Developments' in every faculty or school to link up businesses to relevant academics (e.g. Middlesex University). This situation is not so different from some developing contexts, even though, in a relatively slow pace and dimension (e.g. Makerere University in Uganda).

In addition, the increased collaborations with, for example, industry and government is a strong indication that universities now see their activities, whether teaching, research or community engagement and entrepreneurial activities, as forms of service to stakeholders. Apart from this, the new quality control and measurement criteria in which the interests of all relevant partners of the university are taken into consideration demonstrates the extent to which the activities of the university has become sensitive to 'service receivers'. They have become socially accountable and reflexive; competitive, locally and internationally, and concerned about innovation and relevance of their delivery to stakeholders and the society.

4.7 DYNAMICS OF SERVICE ORIENTATION IN CONTEMPORARY UNIVERSITY

From the on-going discussion it may be logical to propose that the role of higher education as a powerful institution of society has increasingly being under scrutiny from the public and even some section of academia (especially those who believe that higher education should be directed to solving problems of society); the public wants to know how higher education is responding to its needs (Bowden and Marton, 1998). Social and academic forces (Ward, 2003) are pushing almost every country (both the more developed and the developing alike) towards policy deliberations on higher education that are geared towards understanding how the system can be restructured to respond to the socio-economic and political needs of society (World Bank, 2000). At the same time some scholars are decrying the diminishing status of the university as a centre for critical intellectual development (Barnett, 1990, 1997; Taylor et al, 2002; Graham, 2002). Despite this, higher education institutions continue to stress more on the service they (can) offer to society (whether as a rhetoric or non-rhetoric?)

4.7.1 The Service University

The concept of the *service university* has been used by many researchers to describe the new development in higher education delivery; among them are Cummings (1997), Tjeldvoll (1998). According to Cummings (1997), the word '*service*' in the university context means *the delivery, installation, and maintenance of knowledge-based applications to clients wherever they may be*. That it includes all the old services, which he describe as those associated with the American land grant university, and whatever new services a university can offer. Basically, service from the university is not an entirely new thing, but what is new is the dimension of the service (services offered outside the university campus) and the global scale it now assumes (Tjeldvoll, 2000). Cummings argued that until recently, the traditional research universities, operated since the last century, had a characteristic of operating on public allocations. In contrast, the service university provides its own or at least some portion of its financial needs through the selling of knowledge-based services to clients. The concept 'outreach' is used synonymously to mean service in several American universities (Lynton, 1995). Service combines teaching, professional service with applied research that overlaps to give direct and a meaningful relationship to theory and practice.

Cummings (1999) cited research conducted on universities in six countries (US, Norway, Russia, Korea, Japan and Indonesia), among other places; to identify the different meanings of *service* and kinds of service that universities offer and can offer. This study looked at broad themes such as *Context; Crisis; Leadership; Consensus; Activities; Structure; and Finance* at the individual and institutional levels. At the end of the study it was concluded that there was an awareness and expansion of the service orientation in universities throughout the world. It further stated that the service was more prevalent in newer universities in the USA, Latin America and Australia. Cummings concluded by predicting that the service orientation will feature prominently in higher education in the future.

In Cummings' contrast of the research university and the service university he claims that under the service university courses are much shortened to cater for the cliental needs. Even though it is generally logical to argue that universities will shorten the length of their courses (to between one week to four months) to provide service for clients, they will still need to run undergraduate and postgraduate programmes to cater for the long term needs of the society as well as individual students needs as a major knowledge production centre dealing with a wide range of clients.

Extensive research on the service direction in developing countries, especially in Africa, within contemporary debate is likely to discover interesting features of the service movement as it permeates into more unstable and unpredictable socio-political and economic environs such as in developing countries with democracies at the infant stages. The University for Development Studies is an example of a service university operating in a developing context, a context entirely different from the advanced 'Western' context where universities involved in advanced scientific research and knowledge production in collaboration with industry on high-level commercial endeavours. Unlike the 'Ethiopian Predicament in Establishing a Service University'[13] where there is a mismatch between the nations low-tech agricultural production and the university production of academics (see Tjeldvoll et al, 2005), in the UDS there is a match between the context of the university (also low-tech agricultural production) and its training programmes, at least at the theoretical and training levels. The likely problem of the case of the 'futile' Ethiopian service university project was that the model was structured on western assumptions rather than the local realities. The service orientation of the UDS is a reflection of its developing context that does not necessarily needs high-tech scientific knowledge production.

In analysing the future consequences of the service university, Tjeldvoll (1998) has hypothesized three scenarios:

- A *degenerating service university* in which the administration and professors of the university are not able to convince its stakeholders of the need to provide sufficient funding, leading to financial crisis that ends up in the recruitment of low quality staff, low academic qualified and low fee paying students, with the consequence of its been identified as a low quality institution with a possibility of been closed down.

[13] This is a recent research conducted to assess the development of service university in Ethiopia.

- The *service university supermarket* is created where the university is operated as a business enterprise and structures its programmes to be competitive with other educational institutions to satisfy the needs of private enterprises and other related public domains. Research is basically applied and the administration is typical of a business corporation.
- An *academic service university* scenario occurs when all the players in the university acknowledge and understand the changing situation. All measures are taken to ensure that the university's delivery is maintained at quality level to win public and private confidents. This enables it to gain the limited public funds, win research contracts from funding institutions such as foundations; and at the same time running competitive programmes to suit business enterprises. In this situation there is a balance between the state and business. Tjeldvoll argues that the most desirable is an academic service university that maintains a best balance between the needs of all its stakeholders (the state, private markets, academia and institutional).

However, there is also the possibility of a fourth scenario emerging, a *disgruntled service university*, where there is a general consensus for the need for change and in the changing process there is split of opinions especially on the issues of academic freedom and the level of departmental-individual-university autonomy. In this scenario there will probably be the existence of quality professors and material resources but service activities could experience a downward quality trend due to the disagreements within the university community. These entire hypotheses about the service university concept are important in structuring and restructuring higher education institutions to make the best in the new sphere.

From the overview, it is observed that the service university orientation is still at a developmental stage and might take different forms in different environments but still maintaining the features associated with the movement. Teaching, research and outreach are diffused; the service university carries out research and teaching in parallel and overlapping units. The basis of its mission and overlapping nature of its teaching and research activities are geared towards effective service to its clients. The model can be said to be founded on the utility philosophy of higher education, where delivery is geared towards catering for the needs of the society.

It is also clear that teaching and research form the core activities of the university, with service seen not as an entity by itself but referring to the entire core activity of the university. The model embraces work-based learning as a form of service to its clients, which is tailor-made to reflect the needs of professionals. The intrinsic aim of the idea is to be self reliant in a situation where traditional state funding is reducing. However, the model seems to be less involved (with society) or excludes 'community service' as a non-academic service to its constituencies. While the epistemological perspective of higher education would frown at the service university model, that of the political would be to a larger extent comfortable with it. The critical pluralistic on its part would prefer the academic service university scenario.

4.8 EMERGING MODELS OF SERVICE UNIVERSITY

The current situation of increased demand for higher education, and the corresponding increase in not only the number of higher education providers worldwide but the diverse nature of these providers have undoubtedly made the classification of institutions of higher education very complex. Therefore, the identification and discussion of emerging service university models in this instance is broadly based on the evolving service university concept, tied to the increasing service orientation of universities, operating within specific objectives or concentrating on different aspects of the service. Before this, an overview will be made of existing classifications of higher education institutions.

The World Bank's Task Force on Higher Education and Society (2000) classified higher education institutions using horizontal and vertical analytical frames. The horizontal is based on the premises of increased number of new providers, which is classified according to their funding sources: public funded institutions; private (not-for-profit) institutions; and private (for-profit) institutions. The vertical is pinned on the diversity of institutions with different goals and audiences, for example research universities, regional or provincial institutions, professional schools and vocational schools. This classification has been broadly treated, ensuring that it captures the broad picture of the current state of higher education institutions. However, the broad view has left out certain minute, but essential details in the current variations, such as the dynamics in the so-called public funded institution or the private, not-for-profit institutions, and the legitimacy or public acceptance of the institutions. As shall be seen later in this chapter, some of the so-called public and

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Another important classification is that of Knight (2005), using four factors, i.e. whether the provider is: public, private or religious; non-profit or for-profit; accredited by a bona fide national licensing body; or part of a national higher education system. Based on these factors Knight categorised higher education into six categories:

- Recognised higher education institutions
- Non-recognised higher education institutions
- Commercial company higher education institutions
- Corporate higher education institutions
- Networks and affiliations
- Virtual higher education institutions

Knight's categorisation, even though in a developing stage, seems to have the potency to capture the current dynamics of the higher education scene when analysed on the basis of the four factors identified. For instance, a recognised higher education institution could be a commercial company, a corporate body, or a virtual institution. However, there is a fall out of some basic elements when considered in terms of differentiated higher education, for example, it says very little about where a research university or a developmental university fits. It also disregards the philosophy of higher education in terms of acknowledging the different views underpinning the purpose of higher education.

In predicting the future of higher education (which is in fact applicable now), Levine (2000) proposed three types: i) the "brick universities" signifying the traditional campus-based universities ii) the "click universities" referring to the virtual universities such as the Open University in the UK and iii) the "brick and click universities" connoting a combination of the brick and click university models which many universities are adopting now. This typology is rather interesting and represents the present radical developments in the higher education scene. Again, this categorisation is also so broad that it only defines the sites and to some extent the mode of delivery and organisation of higher education institutions. It is particularly deficient in defining the function and role of the university as well as its relationship with major stakeholders such as state and industry. The lapses in the above classifications demonstrate the complexity embedded in the present higher education arena that has made it difficult for any typology to capture the entirety of the situation.

In view of this, this study acknowledges the broad and complex nature of the higher education scene and based its classification on identified university types or models that are service oriented and operate within specific objectives or concentrate on different aspects of service. The method of classifying higher education institutions into research and/or teaching seem contestable and no longer tenable in most cases in the sense that the competitive nature of the higher education terrain accounts for institutions taking advantage of every opportunity to be more competitive, hence juggle with varied functions: teaching and research (Clark, 2004), despite that it may be argued that such classifications may be based on the dimension of an institution's involvement in the activity. The exception here may also be on some for-profit higher education institutions who involve in only teaching, as would be discussed in a later section of this chapter. The identified service university models in this study are the *Entrepreneurial University*, *Developmental University*, and *For-Profit University*. These models would be explained and viewed in the light of: i) how teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities feature in the models, and ii) what implication could be deduced from this on the assumption that service is one of the three missions of the university.

4.8.1 The Entrepreneurial University

Entrepreneurship is a term that can have several connotations depending on the particular frame through which it is viewed. The most common understanding of the term is most associated with a business person (an entrepreneur) and of course 'money making' (Etzkowitz, 2004; Ropke, 1998). Thompson (1999: 245) attributes entrepreneurship to innovation: "But initiatives which are not really different or distinctive...and which never experience growth of any sequence...cannot realistically be termed entrepreneurial".

In higher education context, the concept has evolved and explained beyond this common understanding. The roots of linking academic (knowledge) innovation to the idea of entrepreneurship was visualised by Schumpeter (1934). Schumpeter argued that the fundamental function of entrepreneurship is the production of new knowledge in the innovation process. This argument remains at the core of contemporary view of entrepreneurship in higher education. There is currently a growing interest and expansion of literature on the entrepreneurial university model, as such different but similar propositions and assumptions are in play; here two of such assumptions would be looked at. These are those of Etzkowitz (2002, 2004) and Clark (1998, 2004).

According to Etzkowitz (2004: 65) "Academic entrepreneurship is, on the one hand, an extension of teaching and research activities and, on the other hand, the internalisation of technology transfer capabilities, taking a role traditionally played by industry". Based on analysis of entrepreneurial academic developments in the US, Europe and Latin America, Etzkowitz has identified a set of interrelated propositions associated with the entrepreneurial university model as: Capitalisation, Interdependence, Independence, Hybridisation and Reflexivity (CIIHR). The tension created by these conflicting norms is seen as the characteristics that are conducive for innovation.

- Capitalisation: knowledge is created and transmitted for utility purposes – both for disciplinary advancement and enhance social and economic development of society.
- Interdependence: The entrepreneurial university interacts closely with stakeholders especially industry and state.
- Independence: The university is a relatively independent institution, for instance it does not depend on any institution for resources.
- Hybridisation: The attempt to manage the tension between the principles of interdependence and independence gives it a hybrid organisational feature to achieve those objectives at the same time.
- Reflexivity: There is a continuous change (innovation) in the internal structure of the university to reflect changes in its relationship with industry and state, as well as change between state and industry.

Etzkowitz further suggests three stages through which a university could become an entrepreneurial university: Firstly, the institution reviews its mission, and direction to reassert is focus on its priorities in negotiation with its main stakeholders. Secondly, the institution takes an active stand in commercialising its intellectual property emanating from both students and staff work, and thirdly, it make serious and productive initiatives to build solid collaborative partnership with industry and state to enhance the innovation environment of its catchments. This model is a reflection of how higher education institutions are responding to changing environment by putting up with the paradoxes ensuing.

Another perspective is that of Clark (1998). Based on a study of five European universities[14] Burton Clark proposed five organisational pathways of transformation through which an entrepreneurial university can thrive. The study revealed how these institutions used entrepreneurial skills to move from difficult situations to high quality status.

The first proposition is that universities need to strengthen their steering core. This means the leadership should be dynamic and innovative. They should possess among other things the necessary academic qualification to match the challenges of the mission of the institution, as well as being recognized internationally. This will help create better understanding of the institute's overall mission, as well as maintain some level of acceptance and authority among the professors. A good knowledge and track record in management in institutional administration is deemed paramount to ensure a coherent coordination and supervision of the different and challenging components of the institute.

The second consideration is the creation of wings/units within the institute that will be charged with the duty of handling external activities at the local level. The functions of each of these units shall be dependent on the scientific programme of the department it is concerned with, this means it shall work with the various faculties in the institute. The important concern of the unit will be to do applied and commission research and structure services to cater for the needs of clients or external users.

Clark also suggests the building of a discretionary funding base. This is particularly important due to the visible unpredictable nature of traditional sources of funding for higher education. Clark argues that in an atmosphere of competition, an institution can be successful by putting aside some funds to take advantage of important projects that come up at any given time. Considering the current state of some universities where there is virtually insufficient funds to run, this might not be possible, but nonetheless, frantic efforts must be

[14] Finland, England, Netherlands, Scotland and Sweden.

made to put aside such funds for the sake of the opportunities such funds will seize for the institute.

The fourth ingredient to enhance the success of universities is by creating conducive conditions for the 'academic heartland'. That the professors and the other scientific staff are the backbone of the university, hence better conditions for them will motivate them to be innovative and instrumental in all issues that will lead to the success of the institute.

Clark stated the creation of an entrepreneurial culture as the fifth way to make the university more successful. This implies that the university faces a challenge of identifying strategic ideas that are new and related to activities essential to the given community. It concerns a break through with new and enhanced services that create an identity of quality, thereby consolidating the faith of the society in its services as an institution.

In his latest publication *Sustaining Changes in Universities*, Clark (2004) used fourteen more cases to consolidate the earlier propositions. He highlighted on three new dynamics of change: i) a mutual support and interaction among the transforming elements; ii) 'forward-looking and perpetual momentum'; and iii) collective will power to respond to societal demands.

From the above, the entrepreneurial university model could be summarised as a university model that has the ability to translate possibilities into reality; one that involves in the constant exploitation of opportunities and translating them into success stories which would have been otherwise beyond ones abilities. The term is increasingly used and adopted in several disciplines from its traditional business orientation. In the United Kingdom, many universities seem to be orienting towards this model, for example 'Post-1992 or 'mainstream universities' which is referred to as 'Non-traditional universities in later discussions. Entrepreneurial universities core activities usually claim to be target-driven, service-directed, and client-sensitive, however in many cases these claims remain rhetoric as would be discussed in the final chapters.

Etzkowitz's and Clark's views of the entrepreneurial model are based on the utilitarian model of higher education where the interest of the stakeholder is at the core of university business, and in exchange for satisfaction of their (stakeholders) interest is financial reward and/or prestige and recognition. At the same time, institutional strategies are geared towards making it more independent from external forces, such as state and industry. Entrepreneurship could be centred on research, teaching and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities. In both accounts there are variations, from one institution to the other, in the emphasis of entrepreneurial activities; while some concentrate on research others on teaching, yet others on both. But both acknowledged the pressure from within and without to involve in innovative ways of delivering the teaching and research functions.

Teaching and research are core activities in the entrepreneurial university. The case of service in most of the cases, and in fact, in the phenomena, has no place as a major mission by itself, but as a metaphor for what research and teaching and other activities such as consultancy would do for the 'client'. There is, therefore, clear indication that the overall organisation of the main activities in the entrepreneurial model, whether research-based or teaching-based or both, sees university activity as a 'service', which would not only solve the economic and social development needs but guarantee the continuous being and advancement of the university as a powerful institution of society. These characteristics fall in line with the political philosophical perspective of higher education that believes in the extrinsic benefit of knowledge to the society. The case of Middlesex University falls in line with the entrepreneurial university model in several dimensions: the policy formulation and implementation of its teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are service-oriented and client-sensitive, with the main objective of generating funds to supplement diminishing state funding as well as to meet challenges of rising cost of delivery. Middlesex interacts closely with its stakeholders, involves in continuous restructuring of its internal structure to reflect changes and has always aspired to reduce dependency on traditional sources of funding (state).

Pulling the entrepreneurial model to the social inclined political philosophy that believes in the principle of higher education for the general good of society, questions could be raised about the emphasis on financial returns for university services. The emphasis on financial returns could jeopardise the effectiveness of ensuring that university services benefit the entire society in the sense that individuals, groups or communities within the society whose benefit might not necessarily lead to serious financial gains for the university might be excluded. In a wider sense, globalisation could also lead universities to ignore the local socio-economic needs and rather deal with external/international bodies that could pay substantially for university services. Politicians who represent the state are prone to speak on behalf of 'society' and emphasising on 'the economy', but in reality are speaking for the interests of industry and commerce that represent a negligible proportion of the society (Graham, 2002).

What does this position mean to the epistemological orientation? To the believer in the pursuance of higher learning for the advancement of intellectuality, the entrepreneurial university is one of the forces that paves the way for the demise of the very idea that form the basis of higher education. The entrepreneurial university is viewed as a *pernicious* ideology that distorts critical discourse in the university, and undermines it as a site for critical discourse (Barnett, 2003). With regards to moving universities towards entrepreneurship Graham (2002: 126) laments:

"For institutions whose purpose is in large part the inculcation of critical thought and solid learning, this cannot be a satisfactory outcome. It can be prevented, in my view, only in so far as intellectuals undertake serious reflection designed to formulate a solid self-understanding of their purposes. And this means recovering the essential idea of a university."

Viewing the entrepreneurial university model through the critical pluralistic frame, which emphasises on a critical balance between higher education for intellectual development and higher education for utility purposes, it could be argued that despite the fact that directing university activities towards the solution of problems of society should be considered essential, the absolute emphasis on the production of 'useful' knowledge or involvement in 'useful' activities could be particularly damaging both in the short-term and long-term. Besides the question of exclusion mentioned above, the question of how useful a particular knowledge or service is to the society can have different and opposing implications if critically assessed. The usefulness of knowledge (understood in the positive sense) seems not to fully explain its value, in the sense that the consequences of useful knowledge might be negative. For example, technological advancement has led to environmental hazards in some cases; the depletion of the ozone layer is a point here. The point being advanced here is that if critical intellectuality is integrated with the utility derived, the university would maintain the important balance to stay in touch with society while at the same time maintaining its ideal legacy of critical scholarship. In this connection Berdahl et al (1999: 4) quotes Eric Ashby as saying: "a university 'must be sufficiently stable to sustain the ideal which gave it birth and sufficiently responsive to remain relevant to the society which supports it'"

4.8.2 The Developmental University

The idea of 'development' has a very broad connotation when looked at in the general sense or from different orientation such as political, social or economic. Universities, as stated in earlier discussions, do not operate in a vacuum but operate in a socio-economic and political context, and often live to reflect the changes that take place in these contexts. But the conflicting idea of the university expressed by Cardinal Newman and Flexner (1930) would always be a point of reference when the role of the university in the society is discussed. Should universities function in ivory towers or mingle its affairs with the needs and concerns of the society that establishes and resource them? What is the case of the developmental university?

The idea of development has had a historical dimension starting from the classical theories of ancient Greeks in particular (who used *physis* to express the notion of development), the great Christian era through to the Enlightenment epoch. In the 19th and 20th Centuries, more systematic and complex theories of development such as the Modernisation, Human Capital, Dependency, the Marxist theory of development and Liberation theories were developed to replace classic cyclical ones. Despite the complex and systematic nature of these theories they still have their shortfalls (Fagerlind and Saha, 1989). However, Fagerlind and Saha (Ibid: 29) contend: "Throughout the history of social thought, the notion of development has been understood as change in a desirable direction and encompassing many different dimensions." Furtado (1977) identified three elements that can be used to determine development: increase in the efficiency of production in a given society; the satisfaction of needs basic to the given society; and the political participation of all interest groups of the society. Despite all the intellectual efforts to understand the dimension of development, especially on how education can effect the desired change, there are still wide variations in scholars' understanding of what constitutes development. In this connection, it is concluded:

"It is not so much a question of whether one can be optimistic or pessimistic about education and development, but rather of knowing what kind of education is appropriate for what kind of development...prescriptions are rarely "either-or" or "right-wrong", but rather "under what conditions" and 'for what purpose'".

(Fagerlind and Saha, 1989: 283)

In view of this, what should be the functional dimension of the developmental university? According to Coleman (1984: 85) the developmental university is an "institution that in all its aspects is singularly animated and concerned, rhetorically and practically, with the 'solution' of the concrete problems of societal development". The idea of the developmental university is not entirely a new concept, historically; it can be traced back to the American Land Grant Colleges in the nineteenth century when these colleges were set up to specifically serve as an instrument to solve problems confronting the American society (Key, 1996; Veysey, 1965). The idea of using higher education as an engine for development also featured in the 1880s in Japan, demonstrated in the instrument establishing the first national university (Coleman, 1984). This idea also featured in the former Soviet Union. In an analysis of the evolution of the developmental university from the past five decades, Coleman (1984) identified four principal themes: a) an ethnocentric notion 'synonymous with 'westernisation', b) economistic notion as 'economic growth, c) as the 'measurably amelioration of poverty, unemployment, and inequality under the rubric of 'the realisation of human personality'', and d) as a structural transformation from 'interdependence based on hierarchy' to 'interdependence based on symmetry and mutual accountability'. The concept of the developmental university in this study is tied loosely to those of 'c' and 'd', more particularly related to developing countries.

The forces that tend to push a university to a developmental status could be political (whether with a genuine intention or otherwise); from a university's own initiative to reflect the very developmental needs of its local constituencies; and/or international and multilateral donor policy or pressure such as UNESCO, USAID, NORAD. Developmental universities are mainly funded by state and to some extent local and international donor agencies.

From the 1960s and 70s there was a particular attention on the need for higher education in developing countries, especially the newly independent nations in Africa and Asia, to adopt the developmental model, such calls came from the UNESCO, scholars in developing countries and concerned organisations and imminent persons (UNESCO, 1993). One of such calls was made by President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania in his keynote address at the World University Service Assembly in 1966:

'The university in a developing society must put the emphasis of its work on subjects of immediate moment to the nation in which it exists, and must be committed to the people of that nation...The role of the university in a developing country is to contribute; to give ideas, manpower, and service for the furtherance of human quality, human dignity and human development.'

The developmental university is said to have three main functions: teaching, research and service (Coleman, 1984; Ajayi, 1996; Effah, 2002). It is noted that teaching should be more innovative geared towards making the overall learning experience relevant to the local culture and practical problems of society. Research should generally be applied and project based to also reflect the developmental needs of the given society. "Research priority should be given to 'such topics as rural health, the problems of poverty in its varying contexts, the conflicts of cultures in multi-ethnic societies and the basis for unity and agricultural and rural development" (Lauglo, 1984: 77). As well, the university professoriate should participate in public policy formulations at all levels of the society and also establish outreach programmes such as in health and agriculture. An example of developmental university is: the University of Mauritius which was established in 1965 for the provision of manpower for the development of independent Mauritius. However, though still a developmental university; its current vision is to "provide an efficient and effective service to the community through quality teaching, research, consultancy and extension services, consistent with national goals and policy" (University of Mauritius, 2005).

The developmental university model is not only stressed throughout the developing world, but it is generally viewed as a model for developing nations (Coleman, 1984; Ajayi, 1996), aimed at pushing them to developed status? In analysing the model, one is compelled to perceive an idea of an end point, or a specific state of being 'developed' – the developed state/nation. What implications would this have on education policy and practice in a perceived 'developed nation'? In general and in a simple sense, education will have little to offer such a nation – which is a fallacy. Every nation is in a state of development in a sense, though at different stages. The simple aspiration of a nation to achieve a particular height puts her in a developmental process, and strategising its higher educational policy and practice to achieve this can arguably be developmental.

Despite this potential broad interpretation, the scope of the developmental university in this research is limited to Coleman's (1984) third and fourth themes of development as stated above. In the developing world, three possible developmental higher education models could be suggested here; the radical – such as the Broadfoot College in India which is strictly geared towards local development especially using local knowledge with very little formal organisation of college activities. Then there is the moderate type that is more organised, assumes national or regional status and award various degrees in different disciplines while linking much of college or university activities to local needs. An example is the University for Development Studies in Ghana which would be discussed in later chapters. Then there is the 'liberal' type which in principle has its development aspiration tied to 'national development', but in practical sense does the contrary; involve in disciplines that do not have 'practical' relevance to its constituency but more driven by external pressure to operate within certain guidelines. Many universities in developing countries can be put in the liberal category.

Returning to the philosophical implications the developmental model is more aligned to the political philosophy of higher education that is more inclined to the social good perspective; it is pragmatic-based, community needs directed and concentrates in solving the practical problems of its constituent areas. The paradigm on which the developmental university operates is unfavourable to the tenet of the epistemological philosophy. Depending on the way a development university is operated, it could be compatible with the pluralistic philosophy especially if its mode of delivery is similar to or within the framework of the academic service university scenario. Regarding the place of service as a function besides the teaching and research functions, there is some acknowledged sense of interconnection. Both teaching and research are operated in the context of solving societal problems, which is service.

Considering the fast technological advancement that has made the world a 'global village', rapidly changing society into a 'network society' (Castells, 2000) , with a growing interdependence among nations, a narrow outlook of the function of the university can have a serious effect on the university as an engine for development and a centre for critical scholarship. Hence, for a developmental university to remain relevant as well as meet the challenges of the changing global sphere, it should strike a workable balance between serving the needs of its catchments communities and registering its relevance and competitiveness in the global arena.

4.8.3 For-Profit Higher Education Institution

The thought of 'higher education' and the 'market' was envisaged by Adam Smith over two centuries ago when he speculated whether university productivity and governance could be enhanced by market competition. In an era of changing higher education context where public support for higher education is inconsistent, coupling with rising cost, some scholars have revisited this speculation (Pusser and Doane, 2001). Historically, both public policy and technology have influenced to a very large degree the landscape of higher education provisions. Throughout a greater part of the twentieth century public and private non-profit higher education institutions were able to sustain dominance, but drawing to the close of the century a spate of new providers of higher education hit the scene, most notably in the US – the 'for-profit' higher education providers such as the Phoenix University (established in 1994). This development has been one of the most watched trends (Bailey et al, 2003; Strosnider, 1998; Blumenstyk, 2000), yet "little concrete information exists about the for-profit phenomenon" (Bailey et al, 2003: 1).

What are these for-profit institutions and what is their function and modus operandi? According to Winston (1999: 12) the for-profit higher education phenomenon is "not the Mom and Pop trade schools that have been around for a long time – beauty and secretarial schools and certification for truck drivers and diesel mechanics. It's the accredited, degree-granting, for-profit institutions like" the University of Phoenix, DeVry, Inc. In his book *The Rise of the For-Profit University*, Ruch (2001) refers to for-profit higher education institutions as models that are owned and operated by public corporations whose objective is to make profit from their activities. Currently there are over 600 for-profit degree-granting institutions in the US alone whose activities are expanding to Europe, Japan and Australia.

Speaking on the topic 'ForProfit Versus NotForProfit Higher Education Institutions: Is There a Difference?', the President and CoCEO of DeVry Inc (one of the leading for-profit universities in the US), Ronald L. Taylor (2003) argued that the terms 'forprofit' or 'notforprofit' do not sufficiently describe either his institution or the traditional higher education institutions except for the purpose of internal revenue service. He argued that "many public and private educational institutions have embarked on forprofit ventures or partnerships, particularly in the area of online education. I think, for example, of institutions like Stanford University and the University of Chicago in partnership with UNext/Cardean University (which is a forprofit institution)[15]". This accusation actually brings to the fore the thin line that divides what can be termed a for-profit and a non-profit institution within the current dispensation of higher education, nevertheless, the emphasis on this differentiation could lie with the magnitude and dimension at which an institution places itself in its mission statement and in the public eye regarding profit; and possibly the legal implications of such an act. Almost all for-profit institutions have made profit the base line of their activities, the public see them as such and under law they have the right to operate for profit unlike the public and private not-for-profit institutions. More research may still be required to ascertain the validity or otherwise of these assertions.

According to the for-profit model, the concept of higher education is an 'industry' and the students as 'customers' whose interest is paramount in guaranteeing profit. The students are full time working adults who are professionals or 'have established career goals' such as those in business, health care and education professions (Kinser, 2002). Hence teaching is the core activity in the for-profit model where the curriculum is built on the very needs of the students; and knowledge is provided "just in time" (Newton, 2002). The teaching role is 'unbundled' ('Unbundling' is a term used to describe the University of Phoenix model - US), in the sense that "content and curriculum experts design the course objectives and materials; practitioners deliver the course...and evaluation experts, rather than instructors, design course assessments" (Ibid). Research is eliminated, and if any, might be more directed towards how the system can be more effective, in this case not part of the students learning activity[16].

[15] Bracket is my own.
[16] The question of how much this unbundling applies to the Work Based Learning concept currently in used in more conventional institutions such as Middlesex University could be an intriguing one.

Generally, the issue of how much an institution should involve in teaching, research and/or service does not exist in the for-profit model, the institutional objective is narrowed down to what the teaching-learning process would offer the student. The model is target-driven, profit-oriented and customer-sensitive. The teaching activity is widely seen as service to society, indicating that service is not a function different from the teaching and learning activities. Service is understood in business sense not in the sense of 'social service', even though one of the main arguments by supporters of this model stress on the practical socio-economic services offered to solve the needs of individuals, groups and the society at large (see Ruch, 2001; Sperling and Tucker, 1997; Taylor, 2003).

Philosophically; the for-profit model could be referred to as an economic extremist/radical perspective of the political philosophy of higher education that stresses on the relevance of higher learning to the needs of society. Political perspectives that are more inclined to the social good of education might not necessarily concord to this model in the sense that the high economic premium attached to the institutional mission could lead exclusion in that the more economic disadvantage might not benefit from services offered under this model. In this connection Taylor et al (2002: 160-1) quotes Andre Gorz (1999) arguments:

"Socialisation will continue to produce frustrated, ill-adapted, mutilated, disoriented individuals so long as it persists in emphasising 'social integration through employment', to the exclusion of all else and investing all its efforts into a 'society of workers', in which all activities are considered as 'ways of earning a living'"

Viewing for-profit higher education through the lens of the epistemological philosophy of higher education, which emphasises on the academic and intellectual inclination for higher learning, such a model can be seen as operating contrary to the founding idea of higher education. Epistemological supporters such as Cardinal Newman (1976), Nisbet (1971), Shils (1970) would view these as the end of higher education. In this regards, Barnett (2003: 44) argues:

"In higher education, giving the customer what she wants is ultimately a recipe for disaster... The undue shaping of a curriculum by money turns back on the formation of the individual herself; her educational *will* remains unformed. Higher education is thwarted; the university is diminished."

To the critical pluralist, the idea of making higher education a business, with blatant disregard to the intellectual and moral component amounts to faulty basis. The critical pluralist views the academic excellence and acquisition of objective knowledge as one of the objectives of higher education, even though should be pursued with an objective of making it relevant to the needs of society (Brubacher, 1982). Hence, the exclusive attention accorded the utility (economic benefits) component may be inconsistent with the critical pluralist, which this study is anchored on.

4.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the different meanings of service and the forces within the current context that has pushed higher education institutions to think and involve in service. As well, service practices that are used within the teaching, learning and research contexts have been examined in relation to understanding how service interacts with the other so-called missions. Analyses of the Mode 2 Knowledge Production assumption and suggested models of service universities have also been presented.

Although the concept of 'service' is not new in the higher education environment, its place in the university context is ambiguous. Several meanings are associated with it depending on the time and place, but the most problematic is its place as one of the three missions of the university. Despite the differences in the interpretation of the concept and the problematic nature of its stance, there is one important element in all: the conscious idea of trying to integrate relevance into the once cognitive and intellectual form of higher education which some felt was 'unmindful' or 'unconscious' of the needs of the society that resources it. The idea of 'reorganising' and 'reparking' the traditional modes of university academic activities (Mode 2), especially teaching and research, to link them to the practical needs of their constituencies is the fundamental spirit that oversees all service practices. In this case, service, as viewed in the current dispension is more aligned to the political philosophy of higher education than the epistemological perspective. Hence, the idea of service in this instance may be incompatible with the epistemological perspective, which underscores the need for the higher learner to lean towards intellectuality, pursuance of knowledge for its own sake, rather than for its utility sake. However, the issue worth noting here is the question of how the service practices being pursued acknowledge the importance of maintaining the critical element associated with higher learning, which some scholars see as the life blood of higher education. These are some of the elements or issues that would feature in later chapters of this study.

The understanding is that, even though the notion of service as one of the missions of the university is persistent, the way it (service) is conceived and utilised suggests some form of connotation for almost all the activities of the university including teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities. Against this background, service may generally be referred to as both the internal and external activities that are carried out by the university community in groups or by individual members geared towards achieving the mission of the university, in most cases seen as teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities. However, evidence suggests that there is wide variation in the dimension of interpretation of the concept of service, for example western/non-western, direct/in-direct, public/private and rhetoric and non-rhetoric which would be discussed in Chapter 9 based on evidence gained from fieldwork. The conclusion here is only a part of the overall aim of this study to understand and reinterprete the place of service in the higher education context. In subsequent chapters, two case studies will be explored to gain wider and deeper understanding of the concept based on empirical evidence to enable such reinterpretation.

PART TWO

Having had an overview of the entire research in part one that dealt with the research objective and scope, the conceptual underpinning and methodology, as well as an analysis of literature on contemporary higher education that led to understanding the place of service in the university, the second part will cover chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8. This part involves Middlesex University and the University of Development Studies and their respective contexts. In comparative education research, the most challenging issues are the questions of equivalency and comparability and the extent to which contexts of cases to be compared are well understood, and most importantly the ability to identify the aspects of the cases relevant to the subject matter of the study. The context of each case is essential in understanding and interpreting both the explicit and implicit meanings of the data generated from each case to be able to understand how the phenomenon under study is exhibited in each case's context. There are no two cases that have their contexts being absolutely the same (see Martinussen, 1997).

CHAPTER 5: THE CONTEXT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM: AN OVERVIEW

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this chapter is to give an overview of the context in which Middlesex University operates. A key component of the chapter will be a broad overview of higher education in the UK, even though other relevant areas such as the economic and social characteristics will be included. This is indeed essential in enhancing a better analysis and understanding of relevant data on Middlesex University as a higher education institution located in such a context. The next chapter (6) will provide a similar contextual overview of the University for Development Studies.

5.2 BASIC FACTS

The United Kingdom is one of the world's most complex nations to define territorially and even conceptually. According to Jones (2003: 2) even though most writers about education on this territory "use the terms 'Britain' or 'UK', they would do better to say 'England'" because their data and analysis are usually based and structured within an English context and experience. This is usually as a result of the fact that England is the largest of the constituent countries and its educational policy has more often than not informed the other constituent parts. The United Kingdom consists of four parts: England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales (World Education Encyclopedia, 2002). Raffe et al (1999) symbolise these constituent parts as 'home internationals'. Each of the constituent parts is considered a country in one sense and in another a component of one bigger nation. The name 'Great Britain' is often used to refer to England, Scotland and Wales (Holt, 2002). In this research, the UK as used refers to the four main constituent parts: England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Table 5.1: Basic facts about the United Kingdom (originated from this research study)

Location	Europe, total land area of 244,820kmsq
Constituency	England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales
Demography	Total population – 59.3million: England – 49.1; Northern Ireland – 1.9; Scotland – 5.1; and Wales – 2.9
Economic	Capitalist, service economy, manufacturing and agriculture; one of the world's leading trading powers and financial centres, GDP approximately $30,253, annual growth is 2.5% (1990 – 2003) (UNDP, 2005)[17]
Social Structure	Groups – English, Scottish, Welsh, Irish, and other minority groups, increasingly multicultural
Status	More developed, High Human Development Index (population has long and healthy life, high adult literacy rate, high enrolment rates at primary, secondary and tertiary levels; and decent standard of living). Human Development Index is a composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development: along a healthy life, knowledge and standard of living (see UNDP Human Development Report, 2005).

5.3 EDUCATION SYSTEM IN UNITED KINGDOM

Education in the United Kingdom varies across its constituent countries. In a forward note of a publication entitled: *Education in the United Kingdom*, Professor Mike Newby a dean of the Faculty of Arts and Education, University of Plymouth states: "One characteristics of the United Kingdom education in the new century is that it is not united…" (Newby, 2002: iv). Each of the four countries' educational systems has been influenced by varied historical factors. England and Wales have some level of similarities (until very recently) due to

[17] Based on 2005 United Nations Human Development Report for easy comparison between UK and Ghana.

Wales's political incorporation with England during the period in which its educational system developed (Raffe et al, 1999). The Scottish system have distinctive characteristics (developed as a national system before its union with England in 1707) (Bell and Grant, 1977), different from the more religious segregated system in Northern Ireland. Differences across the educational systems are more pronounced in the school systems while at the higher education level this is less the case.

However, the core principle underlying education in the United kingdom is that 'it should provide a balanced and broadly based curriculum' defined as i) one which promotes the development of pupils' and society's spiritual, moral, mental and cultural beings; and ii) prepare pupils for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences in later life (Holt et al, 2002). The intention here is neither to delve into the historical factors that brought about these united but diverse educational systems, nor have a detailed coverage of the entire UK educational system, but to highlight on the policy and structural imperatives.

In England and Wales the main source of primary legislation for education is the United Kingdom Parliament based in London (see Holt et al, 2002). In Scotland it is the Scottish Parliament (see Paterson, 2002); while in Northern Ireland it is the Northern Ireland Assembly (given responsibility after the devolution of power to the Assembly in 1999) (see Holt et al, 2002). The structure of the UK education system is divided into three main sectors: School education – referring to the compulsory stage which is required by law for every child to attend, and comprises primary and secondary levels, usually from age four/five to sixteen/seventeen. Further education – from seventeen years onwards. Higher education and Teacher Education – eighteen years onwards. Table 6.1 below provides a summary of the structure of United Kingdom's educational system.

Net primary and secondary enrolment ratio rose from 98% (1990) to 100% (2003) and 81% (1990) to 95% (2003) respectively (UNDP, 2005). According to a report on social trends in 2003/2004 one in six people of working age in UK held a degree or equivalent qualification (ONS, 2005). At the GCSE and GCE Advance levels, girls are reported to perform better than boys (ONS, 2004). Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP between 2000 and 2002 is estimated at 5.3%, and as a percentage of total government expenditure at 11.5% in the same duration (UNDP, 2005). From the total expenditure on education, pre-primary and primary, secondary and higher education levels take a share of 32.2%, 47.1%, and 20.6% respectively between 2000 and 2002, increasing from 29.7%, 43.8% and 19.6% respectively in 1990 (Ibid).

Table 5.2: Structure of the United Kingdom Education Structure

AGE	KEY STAGE	DESCRIPTION
Five or under	Foundation stage	Reception class
Primary		
Five – seven	1	Years 1 and 2
Seven – eleven	2	Years 3, 4, 5 and 6 (England, Wales & Scotland)
Four – eight	1	Years 1, 2, 3 and 4
Eight – eleven	2	Years 5, 6 and 7(Northern Ireland)
Secondary		
Eleven – fourteen	3	Years 7, 8 and 9 in England, Wales and Scotland Years 8, 9 and 10 in Northern Ireland
Fourteen – sixteen	4	Years 10 and 11 in England, Wales and Scotland
	-	Year 12 in Northern Ireland
Further Education[18]		
Sixteen onwards	-	From school leavers to adults (full time or part time)
Higher Education & Teacher Education		
Eighteen onwards		Degree awarding (full time or part time) years of study varies according programme/course level

[18] Types: Colleges of Further Education, Colleges of Technology, Sixth Form Colleges, Specialist Subject Colleges, Colleges of agriculture and/or horticulture. In Northern Ireland only further education colleges exist (Holt, 2002).

A complex irony of the UK education system is the increasing central control while at the same time more power is divulged to individual educational institutions. The institution of new quality assessment control regimes at all levels, and the pressure on institutions to take absolute responsibility for their own successes and/or failures are some examples. Martin (2004: 6) argues that the changes over the past twenty five years have resulted in the "paradox of increasing control being taken by the centre while simultaneously shifting responsibility and accountability to the edges". This can be understood in the context of the current attempt to give more powers to secondary schools. Following earlier policy change in the educational system towards a model that sought to make education a major driver for the nation's economic competitiveness (see Matheson, 2004; Tomlinson, 2005), the start of the twenty-first century has witnessed radical steps towards consumerism philosophy of education through the introduction of top up fees in universities, and an attempt to make secondary schools more autonomous, especially in their generation of income. Currently, issues of central importance in the educational system are funding, quality and the question of what constitutes worthwhile learning.

Although in the UK, the function of education in the broad context is to develop the whole being of the individual, through the existence and introduction of a wide array of subjects in the National Curriculum, educational policy deliberations and policy initiatives have generally pointed to directing education to solving societal problems rather seeking knowledge for its own sake.

5.4 LOCAL CONTEXT

Middlesex University is located in London (North London). London is the capital city of England and seen as one of the greatest cities of the world. It has a population of over 7 million. According to the 2001 population census, 29 percent of Londoners belong to a minority ethnic group; with over 300 languages spoken (ONS, 2003).

London is a global centre for international business and the magnitude of its business may be comparable to many national economies. Although manufacturing is an important component of London's economy, the service sector involving for example finance and business, tourism and hospitality is the dominant (Ibid).

Despite the good economic position, London is divided between the two extremes of 'wealth creation and success, and deprivation and social exclusion'. Reports indicate that up to 20% of wards in London are in the 10% of the most deprived wards in England (Ibid). There are over 25 higher education institutions in London.

London is divided into five educational blocks known as London Local Learning and Skills Councils (LSC) as: London Central LSC, London East LSC, London North LSC, London South LSC, and London West LSC[19]. The scope of the sub local context of Middlesex University is defined within these five blocks. Although Middlesex University has international campuses located in Dubai for example, its main London campuses are located in London North LSC area including boroughs like Haringey, Waltham Forest, Barnet and Enfield (Taylor Associates, 2005).

The economy of North London relatively depends on small businesses, totalling up to about 39 000, with about 41 percent of these based in the borough of Barnet. The largest sector of the economy is service; accounting for over 70 percent of the economy. There is an average of 4 percent unemployment in the area with a high of 9.0 percent and low of 6.4 percent. Some of the most deprived boroughs in London are located in North London. It is estimated that up 10 percent of the population aged 16 and over are found to be on income support and about 24 percent of pupils in primary and secondary school eligible for free meals (Ibid).

5.5 HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UK

Higher education in the United Kingdom dates back to the 12th and 13th centuries and operated as private institutions with the first cohort of universities being those such as Oxford, Cambridge and professional institutions as the Inns of Court and the Royal Colleges of Medicine and Surgery. The ideology of education was more of an elitist one in which education, to a greater extent, geared towards the ruling or the affluent class (see Matheson and Limond, 1999). The next major expansion of higher education was in the nineteenth century when more institutions were established in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland which, even though they received some financial aid from government, operated as private foundations (see Holt et al, 2002) and to a larger extent influenced by the ideals of elitisms. Further expansions occurred during the first part of the twentieth century with the

[19] Learning and Skills Councils have no authority over universities, it is to provide an idea of scope of the local area.

creation of more university colleges; and later the implementation of the 1963 Robbins' Report put into operation that allowed the creation of polytechnics to act as centres of higher education that would link with industry and business (see Tomlinson, 2001; Holt et al, 2002) and which led to more participation in higher education. At this time higher education was been established firmly along the political philosophy. The 1992 Higher Education Act abolished the binary system that separated polytechnics and universities allowing all polytechnics to become full universities bringing the total number of universities institutions to 125[20] and the total 168 for all higher education institution (Universities UK, 2005). This change provoked an important debate on the 'nature, purpose and funding of universities and the balance and quality of teaching and research' (Tomlinson, 2005: 155). Participation in higher education is now more inclusive than ever, reinforced by the government's White Paper entitled: *The Future of Higher Education* which made widening access and participation its main objective (DfES, 2003). But the unresolved component of this is the extent to which the less disadvantaged class and minority groups are positively affected by the widening access and participation. Although the case of some higher education institutions associated with favouring elitism and first/middle class groups still exist.

5.5.1 Scope

Constitutionally, as contained in the 1988 Education Reform Act for England and Wales, and the Education Reform Order 1989 of Northern Ireland, higher education is defined as "education provided by a means of a course of any description that is of a standard higher than the standard of courses leading to the General Certificate of Education Advanced-level (GCE A-level), or National diploma or Certificate from EdExcel (formerly Business and Technology Education Council, BTEC)" (Holt et al, 2002: 6). In general, terms, higher education in the UK refers to any form of education that takes place in the university or college of higher education involving any age group with courses that are above GCE advanced level (see Lowe, 2002; HESA, 2006). Higher education institutions are created by Royal Charter or by a Parliamentary Statute as in the case of the 'post 1992' or 'new' universities. However, alongside universities are colleges of higher education (further education colleges) which are self-governing institutions, but have no power to award

[20] This includes University of Buckingham, which is a private university.

degree qualifications like the universities; their degree qualifications need to be validated by universities or other institutions with the powers to accredit qualifications.

5.5.2 Purpose

According to the Dearing Report (1997), higher education should aim at developing the cultural and intellectual being of the individual. The report acknowledged the influence of globalisation on the national economy and its implications on higher education delivery, as such it puts strong emphasis on the economic purpose of higher education; equipping students for work. It states that 'higher education will become a global international service and tradable commodity'. The purpose and direction of higher education now seems more geared towards building economic capital demonstrated by the emphasis made in this area within the past decade. In a response to the 1997 Dearing Report, the then Secretary of State, David Blunkett, made an important contrast between the 19th century and the twenty-first century: whereas in the former 'economic success depended on investment in fixed capital – buildings, plant and machinery', the later depends on 'intellectual capital' hence the need to 'invest in our people, mirroring the investment in fixed capital and equipment of the past' (DfEE, 1997: 2). In analysing the Dearing Report, Peters (2004) perceives three functions of higher education: knowledge, labour and institutional functions. The institutional function is seen as higher education acting as an international service and tradable commodity. Another emerging face of higher education, though linked to the economic perspective, is a growing ideology of consumerism, where higher education delivery is seen as offering some educational products to students (consumers) (see Labaree, 1998). The introduction of the top-up fees could mean universities will come under pressure to provide the right courses to meet potential students' demands. In a report featured in the THES (2006a: 1) it is stated 'students are shunning many traditional academic subjects in the humanities and social sciences in favour of degrees that they believe will increase their chances of landing jobs'. The central issue: the prospect of getting a good job rather than getting a good education?

One visible characteristic of higher education institutions in the UK is their diverse nature in terms of mission, type, speciality, status and wealth. This diversity has created a situation impossible to make a generalised statement about the objective of higher education. However, many writers have proposed a general purpose of higher education in the UK as teaching, research and the provision of services to industry, government and the wider society (see Andrea and Gosling, 2002), confirming the recognition of the 1997 Dearing Report: *Higher Education in the Learning Society*, that higher education should embrace teaching, learning, scholarship and research (Dearing Report, 1997).

5.5.3 Organisation/Structure

A common organisational structure exists among UK higher education institutions. Higher education is within the remit of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). The Secretary of State for Education and Skills is in-charge of this department and is responsible for the department 'policies and strategy, in particular responsibly for finance and public expenditure matters... and major appointments' (Andrea and Gosling, 2002: 173). The university is headed by a vice chancellor or a principal, there is a titular head by the title of chancellor usually appointed or elected in some universities. The court and board of governors are bodies responsible for general policy and governance of old universities and post-1992 universities respectively (Ibid). Institutions usually have Pro-Vice Chancellors in charged of different aspects of academic, e.g. research; they are also divided into faculties or schools headed by deans. Within each academic faculty or school are directors responsible for example research, teaching/curriculum and/or director for business development.

5.5.4 Types

While some classify higher education institutions in United Kingdom along the lines of research and teaching, others classified it based on the time at which they were established (see Lowe, 2002). In general terms, however, the United Kingdom higher education has moved from an 'elite' system into a 'universal' system if analysed from a popular classification of higher education systems. According to Trow (1973) the system becomes elite when it enrols over 15 percent of qualified applicants and turns universal when more than 40 percent is enrolled. Current figures show an enrolment level of more than 43 percent (Universities UK, 2005). However, the Higher Education Policy Institute is questioning the possibility of the Government's target of making 50 percent of all young people enter university or college by 2010 (THES, 2006b). Based on this taxonomy, the system can be termed universal or mass. Higher education institutions in the UK may be classified into about seven groups: *Ancient* universities (established before 19th century e.g. Cambridge and Oxford Universities); *Red Brick* universities (established in the 19^{th} and early twentieth century e.g. Universities of Birmingham and Bristol); *Glass Plate* universities (established in the 1960s from the Robbins Report – 1963) e.g. Universities of Sussex and Warwick); *'Post-1992'* (modern) universities (created in 1992 from the then polytechnics e.g. Middlesex and Brighton Universities); The *Russell Group* of universities (a self-selected group established in 1994, composing of 20 large research-led universities, e.g. Universities of Leeds and Cambridge); *Open University* (first distance-learning university established in 1968); and the universities of *London* (established 1836) and *Wales* (established 1893) have constituent colleges that are considered as full universities; Andrea and Gosling (2002) refer to these as two large federal universities. There is also the coalition of modern universities which acts as a pressure group.

Despite this classification, there exists 'a clear perception of hierarchy of universities. This is well-known to students and employers and the institution attended makes a difference to your life-chances' (House of Commons Education and Skill Committee, 2003, cited by Tomlinson, 2005: 158). While the 'old'/'pre-1992' universities provide mainly academic courses, the 'new'/'post-1992' universities 'place greater emphasis on the practical application of knowledge' (Holt, 2002).

5.5.5 Funding Higher Education

Sources of funding for UK higher education institutions are varied. The Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) has put this into five groups: Funding council grants; Tuition fees and education grants and contracts; Research grants and contracts; Other income; and Endowment and investment Income (HESA, 2005). Almost all universities in the UK obtain the bulk of their funding from the state, except the University of Buckingham which is the only private university. Despite the fact that they are funded by the state, they are autonomous in their operations (see Andrea and Gosling, 2002; Holt, 2002). Each of the four constituent countries has a national funding body for higher education as follows: Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE); the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC); Higher Education Funding Council for Wales (HEFCW); and the Department of Higher and Further Education, Training and Employment (DHFETE) directly provides funding for higher education in Northern Ireland (Andrea and Gosling, 2002).

Higher education in the UK has total annual revenue of about 12 billion pounds with about two thirds of this amount coming from the UK government or the European Union. However, there are variations in the funding formula of each country. Research is considered as an essential part of higher education, and about two thousand five hundred million pounds per annum is allocated to universities for research and this serves as an important factor in the variation of incomes of individual universities. The Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) is the main factor used to allocate research funds to universities. The beginning of the 2005/06 academic year will see an introduction of a variable tuition fee for undergraduate full-time students, which will make tuition fees one of the major sources of funding for institutions, reducing the funding from central government (HEFCE, 2006a). Funding is tied to the number of students an institution admits or has in total. Ironically, while admissions into the older and more prestigious universities such as Oxford and Cambridge is intensively competitive (admitting only up to 60% of qualified applicants), some of the new or post-1992 universities struggle to obtain candidates to fill places (through 'Clearing' and January admissions). However, according to recent statistics from Universities and Colleges Admission Service (UCAS), the introduction of top-up fees has led to an increase and decrease in applications to post-1992 universities and traditional universities respectively (THES, 2006a). UK higher education institutions are noted as one of the favourite destinations for international students after the United States.

Despite the varied sources of funding, UK higher education institutions are under enormous pressure to keep up with the high cost of delivery. This has led to the rationalisation of operations in which some subjects, which are deemed not to attract funds, are scrapped, resulting in lost of jobs.

5.5.6 Participation and Students

Participation rate in higher education in the UK context refers to the proportion of people who take part in higher education (HEFCE, 2005). The latest provisional report indicates that higher education initial participation rate (HEIPR) in 2003/04 for 17 – 30 year olds is estimated at 43 percent lower than the previous year 44 percent (Universities UK, 2005).

As autonomous bodies, higher education institutions decide on their admission policies. In most cases, apart from the traditional entry requirements of two or three GCE A-Levels including a GCSE passes of relevant subjects at grades not below C, universities also consider a wide range of qualifications such as the Advanced Vocational Certificate of Education (AVCE), Edexcel BTEC National Qualifications, International Baccalaureate and also mature candidates who have no formal qualifications but have had some experience through work or other experiences. The bulk of the student population in the UK study full time, however, there are now growing numbers of part time studies and adult education. Study modes range from on-campus, distance, virtual (through internet) or a combination of any two or all modes. According to HESA (2005), the total number of students in higher education for the academic year 2003/2004 was 2,247,445, representing 1,947,380 home students, 89,550 European Union students and 210,515 Non-European Union students. Recent reports indicate that more females than males enter into higher education in the UK (see Ibid; also Martin, 2004). Against this background, the student population of higher education cuts through wide range of ages. HESA figures also indicate that out of a total of 766,860 known ethnicity in higher education, 652,705 are mainly white while 114,155 represents a total for all minor ethnic groups. It is also claimed that students from affluent and middle class backgrounds not only have a greater chance of attending higher education but going into elite institutions such as Cambridge and Oxford (see Stanley, 2004; Tomlinson, 2005). Despite acknowledgeable increases in the access rate of higher education since the last two decades, participant level of disadvantage groups are comparatively still low (see also Archer et al, 2002) Even though there are efforts made by government to correct this.

On the whole, while there is intense competition to gain admission into older/elite institutions such as Oxford and Cambridge, there is competition among other universities such as the post-1992 institutions to get applications to fill vacancies. With the introduction of variable fees for students in higher education institutions, student numbers are financially important and universities are leaving no stone unturned to ensure that they prepare the right packages to attract candidates. Against this background, students have become important clients to universities rather than the conventional view of students as compatriots. In this way, institutions in the United Kingdom seem to serve the needs of their student clients.

5.5.7 Teaching and Research

Teaching and learning are the main activities in the higher education sector. According to a report for Higher Education Funding Council of England (HEFCE, 2002) *Teaching and learning infrastructure in higher education*, teaching and learning are the core businesses for every higher education institution and 'approximately 60% of academic staff time and 70% of the space of institutions are attributable to teaching'. Teaching and learning in most courses involve formal lectures and seminars, even though some courses require practical work in laboratories and workshops. Increased attention to lifelong learning by policy makers has led to more innovative ways of teaching and learning. Advancement in science and technology has led to the expansion of open and distance learning involving more informal and flexible methods of teaching and learning; teaching and learning that are directed towards the professional needs of individual students (for instance work-based learning) (see Matheson, 2004) in particular, and to the market especially. Even though almost all higher education institutions involve in these innovative ways, the Open University is by far ahead in this dispensation. However, the traditional method of teaching and learning involving formal lectures in classrooms/lecture halls is still a dominant characteristic of teaching and learning in higher education.

Following the introduction of the variable tuition fees in the 2006/2007 academic year and the increase attention for lifelong learning schemes such as work-based learning and distance learning programmes, teaching has increasingly been seen as a means of generating income for institutions. Institutions therefore, are under some form of obligation and pressure to acknowledge and identify the needs of potential students and to structure teaching programmes to give the right and appropriate service to these clients. Hence, the introduction of different methods of teaching supported by advanced information technology such as the internet (virtual classrooms). Another important mode of delivery is the opening of campuses in foreign countries, e.g. Middlesex University's Dubai campus.

Research in higher education institutions forms an essential part of their activities, and stands as the second major activity after teaching in many universities. The line dividing universities into 'research universities' and 'teaching universities' seems now to be coming faint due to the increasing pressure on all higher education institutions to juggle with both teaching and research to enable them access funds to run their institutions. As stated in earlier sections, the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) is the main criterion used to allocate research funds to institutions; the more research output, the brighter the chances of obtaining more research funds. Against this backdrop, some institutions are recruiting top researchers to brighten their chances for good results. Apart from the RAE, institutions tend to do contract researches for establishments and organisations on commercial basis (see also Andrea and Gosling, 2002; Lowe, 2002). The relationship between basic research and applied research in terms of institutions engagement remains unclear. However, almost all contract research conducted by institutions is applied oriented. There is a general notion that research in many institutions is applied oriented due to the financial implications involved in that, while basic research are most often supported from public funds, though at a comparatively smaller rates. In fact, basic research is more prevalent in old universities; applied research is said to be in post-1992 institutions. However, the baseline is that there is an increased pressures on institutions to make their research directly relevant to problems confronting society.

According to a recent report, the United Kingdom is lagging behind in research spending as compared to other competitor nations. Citing a UK Department of Trade and Industry report, it confirms: "the UK spends about 1.8 percent of its Gross Domestic Product on research, which places it 17th in a league table of twenty one countries and 7th among a Group of Eight leading industrial nations" (THES, 2006c: 4).

5.5.8 Infrastructure and Resources

Archer et al (2002) indicate that many in the UK have the idea that there are important differences in status and resources between universities. The resource level of a university directly or indirectly affects its overall being. Physical infrastructure supporting higher education activities (teaching and research) is made up of 'buildings with insured value of approximately £26 billion, plus equipment and contents of a further £8 billion' (HEFCE, 2002: 5). Generic institutional infrastructure in universities includes buildings, services, IT networks, libraries (Ibid). While in comparative terms resources for higher education have tended to cater for the resource requirements of the sector especially in keeping up with scientific and technological equipment such as computers and software, recurrent funding of research below full economic costs has put pressure on all resources, negatively impacting on efficiency. In addition, a number of higher education institutions still use substantial number of 1960s and 1970s buildings 'which are already unsuitable in many cases, and near the end of their design life (HEFCE, 2002: 6).

5.5.9 Evaluation

In the UK, different systems are put in place to evaluate the quality of higher education. Holt et al (2002) have identified three ways or forms through which regular evaluation of the quality of the system is carried out as: External review, Inspection of teacher training, and Evaluation of research. Firstly, the external review concerns a statutory responsibility on funding bodies to ensure that the education they fund is of high quality. In view of this, the Quality Assurance Agency was set up in 1997 as an independent body to act on behalf of all higher education funding agencies in the UK. Its role includes institutional academic audit and subject review. Its activities are currently directed at ensuring the proper management of academic quality and standards by higher education institutions themselves. Secondly, initial teacher training is currently under the remit of higher education institutions. The Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) is in-charge of assessing the quality of initial teacher training, its areas of inspection includes selection and quality of trainee intake, quality of training and assessment of trainees, and quality of trainees teaching for the purpose of awarding Qualified Teacher Status (Ofsted, 1998). The Training and Development Agency (TDA) is expected to use the inspection reports as part of general criteria to allocate funds and student quotas to higher education institutions providing initial teacher training. Finally, another method of evaluating higher education is evaluation of research through the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE). This assessment is carried out every four years, however the criteria for the assessment and the rationale for assessment has in recent times under gone scrutiny resulting in changes to the entire exercise. Previous assessments have been based and judged against standards of national and international excellence (see Holt et al, 2002). Faculties (departments/schools) are rated on a seven-point scale: 5* being the highest followed by 5, 4, 3a, 3b, 2 and 1 (QAA, 2000). The RAE is an important factor used by funding councils to distribute public funds for research. The RAE has also been very influential in driving most institutions, especially post-1992 universities, which has been traditionally viewed as teaching institutions into serious research. The next RAE is scheduled for 2008, which most observers see could be the last RAE in it current form.

Apart from the three methods used, several other mechanisms such as the Queen's Anniversary Prize, the Guardian University League Table, the Times Higher Education Supplement League Table, which play important role in defining the quality statues of institutions. One important criterion for higher education league tables is the rate at which an institution generates funds, including research grants obtained and business activities. Recently, the Times Higher Education Supplement has published a list of academics who have become millionaires through the sale of their knowledge; this puts not only institutions to move market, but the academic heartland. The impact of these assessment exercises on higher education can not be over emphasised.

5.5.10 Higher Education Initiatives

Apart from the Open University, which is the biggest provider of distance education, other initiatives have been carried out to enhance the drive for a 'knowledge society' through lifelong learning. Some of such initiatives were the UK eUniversity Worldwide (UKeU) and the NHS 'university', which unfortunately 'crashed out' (see Guardian, 2004). The UKeU was a collaborative initiative between all UK universities and colleges and the private sector. Its main objective was to deliver high quality higher education in a global dimension through the internet. Its initial funding of £62 million over four years (between 2001 and 2004) came from the UK government (Holt, 2002).

Another initiative is the University for Industry (UfI), geared towards fulfilling the strategy of lifelong learning contained in the Government's Green Paper *The Learning Age* (DfEE, 1998). It developed a network of learning centres under the name 'learndirect'. However, recent reports indicate that UfI seems to be facing the same predicament of its predecessor initiatives (Guardian, 2004).

Higher education institutions also enter into collaborative partnership with other institutions and organisations both at home and overseas. The most expanding initiative is the scramble by UK higher education institutions to open campuses in foreign countries. The vehicle for initiatives at all levels seems to be located within the current cutting edge of technology

An observation from the past and on-going initiatives undertaken within the higher education arena in the United Kingdom indicates that they represent attempts to make higher education delivery more dynamic and particularly to serve the needs of the changing society rooted in the ideals of capitalism.

According to Matheson (2004) education in general may be viewed as a political activity because the core element of politics is power and how the power is distributed. If knowledge is the core element of education, and knowledge is power then education is politics. Although the influence of party politics or political ideologies on educational policy and practice cannot be overemphasised, there may or may not necessarily be a correlation between political views and educational views; or better still a political ideology of a given nation necessarily been reflected in its educational policy and practice. Higher education in the UK is caught up in this whirlwind: a powerful knowledge producer interacting with polity, the public, economy and the globe. Higher education policy and practice in the UK is undoubtedly intertwined with polity and 'politricks'.

5.6 NATIONAL POLICY PERSPECTIVE

The 1963 Robbins Committee Report on higher education may be seen as one of the significant national policy development in higher education which some viewed as forming the basis for current national policies especially on expansions in higher education. The most current higher education policy instrument is 'The Higher Education Act 2004', which was developed out of the recommendations made in a Government White Paper 'The Future of Higher Education' (this covers mainly England and Wales and some parts applying to the whole UK). The Act has an objective of laying a legal foundation to assist in implementing some of the recommendations set out in the White Paper. The main underlying principle of the policy is to enhance the competitiveness of UK higher education institutions in the world economy; hence all the related provisions serve as supporting agents to achieve this objective. Key components are the introduction of variable tuition fees from the 2006/07 academic year; creation of an Office for Fair Access; financial package for students, creation of Arts and Humanities Research Council; and setting up of independent body to review students' complains.

In a Foreword to the 'The Future of Higher Education', the Secretary of State for Education and Skills reiterated the important role of universities in building economic strength of the UK, hence to consolidate this there was the needed for the expansion of the sector to recruit and train the best and talented from all social backgrounds in order to develop the human capital base. Policies stressing widening access and participation are, therefore, a form of 'window dressing' and not necessarily geared towards social equity but towards strengthening national economic life. The Secretary of State also stated that to be able to make better progress towards harnessing knowledge to create wealth, universities will need freedom and appropriate resources, while at the same time making the system supportive to students both in resource and in financial terms. This assumption therefore necessitated the enhancement of student support and giving institutions some amount of freedom to charge fees as among other things.

Another area to use in understanding the policy direction and imperative of higher education in the UK is the form of mechanisms put in place to evaluate the system that range from teaching quality assessment, research assessment exercise, student course evaluation, modularisation to league tables among other things. These mechanisms ensure that courses are designed such that learning outcomes are appropriate to the global knowledge economy (HEFCE, 2006c). According to a HEFCE Report on research, it states: "Maintaining a dynamic, world-class research sector within HE is crucial to economic prosperity and national wellbeing" (HEFCE, 2006b: 29). Against this background, the importance of financially supporting research has become a major policy incentive within the higher education sector (See Science and Innovation Investment Framework 2004 – 2014).

At institutional level, higher education institutions continue to expand interaction with business, linking the core activities of teaching, research and outreach activities to industry and community needs. A report from a survey 'Higher education – business and community interaction survey' concludes that there is an increase in 'third stream strategy' in higher education institutions in the UK. Although there are variations in the areas they involve in "the sector has been successful in developing a broad range of activities that contribute to the economy and society' (HEFCE, 2006; 3). From this, it is indicative that policy direction of higher education in the UK is more aligned to the utilitarian assumption, whereby the system is directed towards provisions that satisfy industry and the community as a whole. It may therefore, be suggested that, the policy perspective of higher education in the UK sees the entire delivery as service.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The United Kingdom is undoubtedly one of the developed countries in the world with a relatively progressive and stable national economy, coupled with a long history of education and higher education, largely; give the national educational system a superior status and quality.

Viewing the higher education system through the three philosophies of higher education stated in chapter two (*epistemological* – a belief that knowledge should be sought for its own sake, for its beauty and worth; *political* – that the purpose of higher education is to produce and use knowledge to solve problems of the complex world; *critical pluralistic* – which maintains that higher education should involve rigorous intellectual activities and at the same time underscore the need for this to reflect the needs of society), there seems to be some convergence with the standpoint of literature on the increasing political philosophical orientation of higher education discussed in Chapter four. Although, in the UK system there still exist the notion of some universities more inclined to dealing with practical issues within the society as a whole (such as the post-1992 universities) as against those old universities (as Oxford and Cambridge) commonly seen as elites ones that more or less concentrate on basic research, an analysis of policy documents and the general state of the system would underscore the magnitude in which the system has moved towards the political philosophy. Presently, courses in higher education institutions are gradually been valued on the extent to which they actually reflect the needs of potential students and the market economy as a whole. As a result, some courses in the social sciences (such as history) are being withdrawn due to this. Teaching, research and other core activities are gradually being linked to societal needs, and what financial benefits such will bring to the institutions. As such, higher education institutions in the UK seem to have made (consciously or unconsciously) their activities as a form of service to the society, which in return will provide them with financial rewards to run and improve their institutions.

This clear shift could be attributed to a number of factors including the emerging global market economy where knowledge is at the forefront, the increasing cost of higher education delivery, and the growing concern of the public over the purpose of higher education. Another important characteristic of the United Kingdom higher education system is the growing presence and control of government of the system. Stringent control measures are put in place to make institutions more responsible for their operations to reflect government policy producing graduates who can contribute to the economic growth of the nation.

The conclusion drawn from the above is that state policy on higher education; the society's expectation and the conditions under which higher education institutions operate suggest that the core activities are performed as service to society. Hence, the teaching, research and community engagement functions of the university can arguably be termed as service, rather than service being a function besides the other functions. However, if the on-going shift is left unchecked could kill critical thinking and scholarship, and thus reduce higher education to a business enterprise. As much as it is important for higher education to reflect the needs of the society, it owes an uncompromising responsibility to harness and develop its traditional role of scholarship and critical persuasion. Hence, the critical pluralistic philosophy of higher education is of paramount importance.

From the above overview of higher education in the UK, it seems that its main challenges in the new century, apart from the increasing number of enrolment, rising cost in higher education delivery, advancement in science, technology (as suggested by some writers), and globalisation, is the creation of social cohesion and social inclusion in the system (Lowe, 2002) and making it more beneficial to the overall national dimension rather than only the economic competitiveness (Abukari, 2005).

CHAPTER 6: THE CONTEXT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN GHANA: AN OVERVIEW

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As a comparative study that involves two cases, a brief overview of the context of each of the cases is essential for understandings the phenomenon within the objectives of the study, which seeks to understand how the service concept is conceptualised and practiced. Hence, this chapter is aimed at providing a brief context in which the University for Development Studies is situated, both in the national (Ghana) and regional (Northern Ghana) contexts. It briefly touches on its geographic location, socio-cultural, political, economic and educational situatedness. A major component of this chapter will be an overview of higher education in Ghana.

6.2 BASIC FACTS

Ghana is a developing country and a former British colony, which came into being because of a merger of the Gold Coast and the Northern Territories and gained its independence from the British colonial power in 1957. Ghana is located in West Africa, bordering the Gulf of Guinea to the south, Burkina Faso to the north, and Cote d'Ivoire and Togo to the west and east respectively. It is divided into ten administrative regions: Greater Accra, Western, Eastern, Ashanti, Central, Volta, Brong Ahafo, Northern, Upper East and Upper West.

It occupies a total area of 239,460 sq km. Each region is divided into smaller administrative assemblies known as District, Municipal, or Metropolitan Assemblies depending on the demographic and infrastructure nature of each assembly. They are currently 138 Assemblies in the country. The climate of Ghana is a tropical one influenced by two important air masses; the Dry Tropical Continental (the Harmattan – cool and dry) and the Tropical Maritime (moisture-laden). Rainfall generally decreases from south (over 200cm pa) to north (below 110cm pa); it is wet and moisture in the south and becomes dry towards the north.

Table 6.1: Basic facts: Ghana (originated from this research study)

Location	Africa, total land area of 239,460kmsq
Constituency	One nation with ten administrative regions
Demography	Total population – 18,912,079
Economic	developing economy, heavily dependent on natural resources (e.g. cocoa, gold), GDP approximately $369 annual growth is 1.8% (1990 – 2003), external economic aid.
Social Structure	Groups – Over 60 ethnic groups and languages, traditional, rural and informal networks; official language is English, 'gender inequality' in some parts; many local and international non-governmental Organisations.
Status	Developing nation, Medium Human Development Index [21] (population has comparatively average across: life expectancy; adult literacy and enrolment rates at primary, secondary and tertiary levels; and standard of living)

6.3 EDUCATION SYSTEM IN GHANA

As a former British colonial territory, it is useful to give a historical overview of formal education in Ghana to enhance analysis in later chapters. Before the introduction of formal education, a traditional form of education was practised. Parents and adults in the entire society were teachers and learning was done normally by imitation, observation and participation. Formal education in Ghana can be traced back to the 16th century when European traders and missionaries started the first schools along the coastal settlements (Graham, 1971). The objective of education was narrow and geared towards just serving/fulfilling the needs of these traders and missionaries. In the colonial era, the

Human Development Index is a composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development: along a healthy life, knowledge and standard of living (see UNDP Human Development Report, 2005).

educational system was based on the British educational system. This meant the objective of the system reflected the needs of the colonial power rather than the colonised (see Graham, 1971; McWilliams and Kwamina-Poh, 1975). However, several attempts were later made to make education reflect the needs of the colonised society. Since independence in 1957, several reforms have taken place in order to make the system more reflective of the needs of the society (see Akyeampong and Furlong, 2000). In 1987, a major educational reform was carried out with important objectives of equipping children to live meaningful and productive lives and to make education more relevant to the socio-economic needs of the nation. Currently, the broad goals of education in Ghana is to develop individuals who are well-balanced intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically with the appropriate knowledge, skills and values to fit well into society and enhance the socio-economic and political development of the nation (GOG, 2002).

Unlike the United Kingdom, the educational system in Ghana is centralised, based on a number of Acts, Legislations and Regulations within the framework of the 1992 Ghanaian Constitution, which are subject to review and amendment by Parliament. The entire educational system is under the Minister of Education in charge of the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education implements educational policies through the Ghana Education Service (GES), and the National Council on Tertiary education (NCTE) for pre-university and tertiary levels respectively. The Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) in charge of non-formal education programmes. The educational system is divided into three broad levels: Basic education, secondary education, and tertiary education (equivalence of higher education). The educational system is divided into four levels: the first two levels – primary and junior secondary are termed the basic level, which is free and compulsory; secondary and tertiary.

In the United Nations Human Development Report (UNDP, 2005), it is estimated that net primary enrolment ratio is 59 percent and secondary 36 percent.

In Ghana, formal education is mainly financed from public resources at two levels: central government and district assembly levels. Although current publications are not able to provide recent statistics on the Ghanaian government's expenditure on education, the 2005 Human Development Report suggests that in 1990 public expenditure on education as a percentage of the GDP was 3.2 (UNDP, 2005). The Report of the President's Committee

(GOG, 2002) stated that the total public expenditure on education in the year 1999/2000 was 3.9 percent of the GDP; with about 75 – 80% allocated to pre-tertiary, 12 – 15% to tertiary and 5 – 10% for the Ghana Education Service (GES) headquarters. This means that government average expenditure on education is approximately 3.6% of the GDP.

Table 6.2: The Structure of Education System in Ghana (Adapted from GOG, 2002 *Meeting the Challenges of Education the 21st Century)*

Level	*Duration (Years)*
Primary	6
Junior Secondary School (basic education, free and compulsory)	3
Senior Secondary School (secondary schools, technical and vocational institutes)	3
Tertiary Education (universities, polytechnics, and institutions offering courses leading to the award of diplomas and degrees	Variable

Education policy making and implementation is under the control of the central government, more especially at the pre-university level. Although consultations are usually made across, the government makes the final policy decision through the Minister of Education (Agyeman et al, 2000). Since independence, several efforts have been made by successive governments to turn the education system from the 'bookish' form inherited from the colonial master to a system that will reflect the needs and aspiration of the Ghanaian society. It is argued that in the 1960s Ghana's educational system was adjudged one of the most developed in the African continent due to the satisfactory advances made at all levels of the educational system (Anamuah-Mensah, 2002). By the mid 1970s, the educational system was acknowledged as being in crisis due to inadequate or poor or lack of essential provisions such as facilities, conditions of services for teachers, instructional materials, quality of instruction as a result of increased number of untrained teachers. This situation was due largely to the economic slump the country experienced in the 1970s. Against this background, in 1987 a new educational system was unveiled. The new reform, among other things was 'to re-orient and improve the quality and relevance of the curriculum, moving away from a purely academic focus towards one that combines skills acquisition and attitudes formation' (Ibid: 3).

The Government's power and control over the type and direction of education in Ghana has generally been unchallenged, especially at the pre-tertiary level, even though there has always been criticism about some of its policies that has led to the setting up of review committees e.g. the Education Reform Review Committee in 1993/94. At the tertiary level, there is some amount of control by individual institutions over general programmes and courses within the national framework. In general, terms, education policy reviews and formulations seem to be moving at paces lower than the 'global knowledge society' is moving. This may be partly due to the limitation of funds to support such developments and partly due to the weak political will to pursue viable and pragmatic educational policies.

In general and in practical terms, current strategic and rigorous links of education to the market, through government educational policies as practiced elsewhere around the globe seems not to be the case in Ghana now, despite the fact that there is the usual political rhetoric of trying to link higher education to national development. Although over the past, educational policies and reforms at all levels have generally been directed towards making the educational system reflect the needs of the Ghanaian society, education in Ghana more particularly university education has been bookish and examination-oriented, still reflecting the colonial form.

6.4 LOCAL CONTEXT

Ghana is 'traditionally' divided into two contrasting geographical regions; northern Ghana and the rest of the country (Dickson, 1968), which reflects its colonial roots. The regional context here refers to Northern Ghana, consisting of three regions namely: Northern, Upper East and Upper West (sometimes the Brong Ahafo region is included). This area occupies the northern part of the country, almost half of the land area, yet only 18.1 percent of the population of Ghana live there (GSS, 2003). The population of the area is estimated at 3,346,110, with the Northern, Upper East and Upper West having 1,854,994; 917,251 and 573,860 respectively.

The area is a savannah area defined within the Northern Savannah Ecological zone that has the characteristics of low annual rainfall (below 110cm), one rainy season lasting for an average of three months. The Sudan-Sahelian conditions of dry land and draught prevails in the northeastern corner of the area. Hence, the climatic conditions support in most cases annual crops.

Social and kinship bonds play an important role in the overall life of the people of Northern Ghana. Although there are over twenty ethnic groups in the area, some of the socio-cultural practices are found to be similar. One of the areas of growing interest in the social set up of this area is gender relations and roles. Despite significant successes achieved towards empowering females to participate effectively in all areas of the development process of the area, women in northern Ghana are still to a greater extent in subordinate positions when it comes to education, degree of participation in governance and the economy, especially in the rural areas.

The major economic activity is subsistence agriculture, practiced by over sixty percent of the population and usually involving food crops, animal and poultry rearing. Although the formal and service sectors are said to be developing fast, they make up an insignificant proportion of economic activity in the area. The dependency ratio is the highest in the country. According to a report by Gyimah-Boadi and Asante (2003) for the Commission on Human Rights, the three Northern savannah regions have the worst poverty levels in Ghana. It states that nine out of ten people in Upper East are poor, eight out of ten in Upper West and seven out of ten in the Northern Region. On the average, 80.3 percent of people in the three regions are considered poor; Upper East has the highest of 88 percent, Upper West 84 percent and Northern 69 percent (GSS, 2003). This situation has been attributed by many to several factors including the lack of natural resources of economic value such as mineral resources (gold, diamonds), rich agricultural land area to support cash crops such as cocoa and coffee because of a single rainy season. The late introduction of formal education into the area by European colonisers is also cited. However, it has been suggested that it is not only with the lack of political will but strategic and viable policies implemented by the post-colonial state (Dickson, 1968).

A major characteristic of the area is the presence of both local and international non-governmental organisations. It is estimated that there are over 4000 of such organisations in the area with a common objective of developing the area. Most known and active among these organisations are Action Aid, Catholic Relief Agency, Oxfam, World Vision, DANIDA, USAID, School for Life, the United Nations and its subsidiary organisations such as UNDP, UNICEF, UNESCO.

Considering the educational focus of this research and its interest in the University for Development Studies located in Northern Ghana that has an objective of increasing development in this area, it is particularly important to give a relatively detailed overview of the development of formal education in the northern part of Ghana until shortly before independence.

6.4.1 Introduction of Formal Education in the Northern Ghana

Most of the early developments that took place regarding the introduction of formal education in the then Gold Coast from the 16th Century were much more within the realm of the coastal and mid-sections where many of the European influences were most felt. The Northern part also took a different pattern influenced by factors which later became to be seen as the source of the wide disparity in education (development) between the southern and the northern parts of Ghana.

The first point of European contact with the Gold Coast was through the coastal settlements. Before the contact of Europeans to the northern sectors, Muslim traders, through the Trans-Sahara trade operating between North Africa and West Africa had already established trade links with the areas north of the Gold Coast. This old route served as a way leading to a greater flow of traders particularly Muslim traders, from Northern Nigeria that led to the embracing of Islam by some of the people and its subsequent spread in the area (see McWilliam and Kwamina-Po, 1975; Bening 1990), and later the White Fathers (Roman Catholic missionaries). Hence, the first type of formal education in northern Ghana was Qur'anic schools, which taught the reading and recitation of the Qur'an. This form of education offered the traditional Islamic training that reflected the particular spiritual needs of the pupils particularly. In some cases, pupils who studied and completed the other branches of knowledge in Islam were appointed as teachers or played such religious roles as *Imams*[22]. It is important to note here that one such Qur'anic schools is also reported to have operated in the southern part that attracted colonial funding in 1899.

The curriculum of the Qur'anic Schools was more geared towards the spiritual rather than the practical needs of the people. Even though in the northern traditional sense people may consider the spiritual component of life as the core and essence of one's being, in a pragmatic and functional sense, any effective educational curriculum should crave to cater for the whole spectrum of the learner; with emphases on the practical needs of the society, which in this sense should concern better ways of farming and animal rearing. Like the traditional form of education, the cost of educating the child in the Qur'anic school was not defined.

British colonial development plans in the north are said to have started in 1904 after the definition and demarcation of its boundaries with other European powers (see Bening, 1990). The first school was opened around 1909 in Tamale, the capital of the Northern Territory. The White Fathers[23], like the Muslim traders, also came to the north via the old trade routes from Algiers and established a school at Navrongo, a north-most part of the Protectorate. This was noted as the only missionary activity started in the area. Comparatively (to the southern part), European-style formal education took off much later (at least 100 years) due to the late contact by Europeans and their cautious welcome or cautious acceptance by the people. Several other factors are noted for the slow development of education in the territory.

One major factor was the sheer lack of interest by the people, it is documented that "some Dagombas (an ethnic group in the north) were persuaded, or rather conscripted, to go to school."[24] This was due to the perception that the European type of schooling was a Christian institution, raised fears that schooling was a ploy to kidnap their children.

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[22] Religious leader
[23] Christian missionaries called so because of the white gowns used, as a traditional wear brought from Arab Algiers.
[24] Quoted fro the Northern Territory Annual report, 1955: 82

Another was the deliberate efforts made in limiting the number of schools in the area. The territory was seen "as a commercially and economically negative area which offered none of the readily exportable mineral, forest and agricultural resources of the Ashanti and Gold Coast Colony" (see Bening, 1990: 251), hence the British authorities were reluctant to invest in the development of the area.

The curriculum of the school was not elaborate and in many cases limited to the 3Rs. According to McWilliams and Kwamina-Po (1975: 44) quoting a Mr Grant (government teacher posted from Accra) states: "'Teaching in the classroom during those days was a happy-go-lucky affair. There were no "notes of lessons" to be prepared; a teacher could teach anything on the spur of the moment... Almost exclusively, the "three Rs" and Colloquial English". This in any case did not reflect the practical needs of the people, which were effective farming and animal rearing techniques and hence attracted very little patronage from these peasant farmers.

Initially no fees were paid and there was free supply of books and other teaching and learning materials. Apart from this, parents/guardians who agreed to send their wards to school were paid a penny per day for a child for the upkeep (Ibid). School fees were introduced in 1923 when many of the schools were turned into boarding schools, and schools were allocated plots and pupils were encouraged to grow their own food.

The development of formal education staggered through different colonial administrations with an acknowledged involvement of local chiefs through the introduction of the indirect rule and the forming of the Northern Territories Territorial Council (NTTC) in 1946, while the one major challenge of low enrolments still lingered. The opening of a teacher training college in Tamale in 1944 was no doubt a boost to the expansion of education. By 1951 when the Gold Coast was granted internal self-rule and all the three components of the colony (Gold Coast Colony, Ashanti and the Northern Territories) were brought together as one country under one self-government in preparation for independence, the Northern Territories was far behind the others in terms of the development of formal education.

In analysing these developments in a framework of relevance and funding, both the Qur'anic and the European forms of schooling may arguably be seen as not effectively reflecting the practical needs of the people. Both systems could be said to be an unexamined elements of a foreign whole, which sought to use such systems as a way of accommodating the people just to achieve their economic and/or political objectives rather than as a means to bring enlightenment. Despite the fact that there were signs of some cost involved on the part of guardians in sending their wards to Qur'anic schools, the question of payment was not an obstacle in educational participation, though it can be argued that it no doubt created a notion of cost in educating a child.

The European form of education was open and enjoyed at no cost with an accompanying immediate financial benefits to guardians, initially. Although fees were later introduced, the initial policy, some argue, created the feeling or perception of free education, and an education for the good of the educator and not the educated. Of course, the later introduction of fees and the subsequent allocation of farming lands to boarding schools can also be understood as a signal, whether consciously or unconsciously, indicating what the role of the school and the future graduates should play in the community. In general, the overall educational policy; the state of the school curriculum, the lack of sufficient and qualified teachers, equipment, and the objective of education, as well as the general attitude of the local people were the underlying factors that operated to define the relevance and cost of education in the Northern Territory.

Despite the fact that the overall importance of the introduction of formal education into the north cannot be overemphasised, "[it] failed to provide for the adequate training of the varied personnel required for the economic, technological and social progress of the north and political integration of the Gold Coast as an emergent and independence nation" (Bening, 1990: 261).

6.5 HIGHER EDUCATION IN GHANA

In Ghana, the term 'higher education' is officially referred to as 'tertiary education'. The current system of higher education is binary – consisting of universities and specialised institutions. According to EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005 total enrolment in tertiary education in 2001 was 68 000 representing 49 000 males and 19 000 females (UNESCO, 2004).

6.5.1 Brief History of Higher Education in Ghana

Before the first higher education institution in the then Gold Coast, the very few, usually with affluent backgrounds (some sponsored by missions and the colonial government) had their university education in England, with courses usually being academic related ones. The idea of higher education in Ghana can be traced back to the 'Sixteen Principles of Education' of Governor Sir Gordon Guggisberg (1925) in which the third principle stated the "provision of a university" (McWilliams and Kwamina-Po, 1975), even though nothing significant was done towards this. In 1943 came another attempt that saw the setting up of two committees by the British Government; namely The Asquith and Elliot Commissions to look into how universities could be developed in the British colonies in West Africa. The outcome of the Elliot Commission was a disagreement among its members; that is, between opening one central university for West Africa to be based in Nigeria or opening a university college each for Nigeria, the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone (with the former being accepted by British authorities). The decision of the authorities stood as one of the main factors that engineered and generated a concern and a strong desire by the Gold Coast to get its own university, even if it meant taking responsibility of the cost involved.

Against this background, the first university college was opened in 1948 (now University of Ghana) which functioned like the then British university system and its certificates were awarded by the University of London. The main purpose of the college was to train people to help in the administration of self-rule later to be granted to the Gold Coast; as such, the courses were generally academically oriented. The Kumasi College of Technology now the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology followed this in 1952. The main objective was to diversify higher education provisions, move beyond the academic form of courses run at the University College to ones that were more technical. This was based on the recognition that the role of science and technology in the development of the nation could not be over emphasised. Such a move was also very important to correct the notion that "education with a technical bias as something fit for those who were not fortunate or not clever enough to have an academic one, or for those who fell foul of the law and sent to industrial schools" (McWilliams & Kwamina-Po, 1975: 80).

Later developments in the country prompted the government to set up a commission in 1960 to examine and advise on the future of higher education in the country. The commission recommended, amongst other things, the granting of full university status to the University

College and the Kumasi College of Technology. It also recommended the setting up of another university college solely to train graduate teachers to teach in arts and science subjects at secondary, teacher training, technical institutions and polytechnics across the country, which led to the opening of the University College at Cape Coast (now University of Cape Coast) in 1962. It is worth noting that all three universities were and are still located in the southern part of Ghana. Even though all three universities had missions that were directed towards developing the newly independence state, they have been criticised and seen, like many universities in Africa "as an artifact of colonial policies" (Teferra and Altbach, 2004), too academic and Western-oriented whose activities least reflect the practical needs of the country. At this time, the concept of higher education was affectionately referred to as "university education" in the Ghanaian context.

Furthermore, in 1988 the government under the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) set up a committee known as the Universities Rationalisation Committee (URC) whose report indicated that as little as less than one percent of the university attendance age group were pursuing courses in the university (see Daniel, 1996). This partly resulted in a recommendation to set up two more universities to increase access at the tertiary sector. Hence, in 1992 and 1993 the University for Development Studies and the University College of Education, Winneba were opened respectively. The former, located in northern Ghana, had a mission of speeding up development in the north, which have long trailed behind the rest of the country, while the later, located in the south, focusd on the training of teachers to teach at various levels of education in Ghana. . Ghana currently has five public universities and a number of privately run ones, ten polytechnics located at each of the ten regional capitals, and specialised institutions set up for specific purposes such as nursing training colleges.

6.5.2 Scope and purpose of higher Education

In Ghana, higher education (tertiary education) is the education offered after "secondary level at a university, polytechnic, specialised institutions, open university and any other institution offering training leading to the award of a diploma and a degree qualification" (GOG, 2002: 111). The current scope is contained in a 1991 Ghana Government White Paper based on the University Rationalisation Committee Report that referred to higher education as *tertiary education* and redefined the scope of higher education to include all universities, polytechnics, teacher training colleges and other relevant post-secondary educational institutions. In a Government Review Report on higher education entitled: *Meeting the Challenges of Education in the Twenty First Century*, it is stated that tertiary education is vital to the socio-economic development of the nation, against the background of current knowledge-based economy and globalisation phenomenon. The report stressed: "(tertiary education) has a key role to play in the creation, dissemination and application of knowledge, production of human capital as well as the development of skills and adaptation of knowledge to meet developmental needs" (Ibid). The current objectives of higher education in Ghana are:

- to develop people with intellectual and analytical mind to enable them to use the knowledge acquired for the benefit of society;
- to equip people with knowledge and skills to enable them conduct basic and applied research and disseminate research findings;
- to produce a pool of people capable of adapting and applying research findings to meet national development needs;
- to produce high level and middle-level human capital for various sectors of the economy, especially to meet the changing demands of industry;
- to produce people who are nationalistic and also capable of appreciating international relations and their implications for world peace and harmony.

Despite the wide scope of higher of higher education in the Ghanaian context, this study will focus more on the university rather than the entire tertiary education fold as defined by the University Rationalisation Committee.

Table 6.3: Structure of Post-secondary /Tertiary Level (adapted from GOG, 2002, *Meeting the Challenges of Education in the 21st Century*)

Level	Duration in Years
Professional Schools e.g. teacher education, nursing	Variable (from 1 to 3 years)
Polytechnic	3 (HND), variable
University	Diploma – 2, bachelor degree – 4, Post Graduate – variable

6.5.3 Organisation/Structure

The governance of universities in Ghana is derived from the evolved British of the 20th Century system in which the staff is given the responsibility to run the university rather than the students as was the case during the original development of the university such as Bologna in the 16th Century. Although institutions have diverse organisational and structural features because of their locations in different geographical areas and diversity in the communities they operate, there exists a common basic general organisational structure. There is a Governing Council made up of some members of the university community, government appointees, labour unions and other groups as required by law. The council has the important functions of law making, oversight responsibilities and other administrative functions. There is also the post of the Chancellor who has ceremonial functions and the Vice-Chancellor functioning as the executive head. In addition, there is an Academic Board (Senate), charged with the responsibility of advising the governing council on academic related issues (Effah and Mensah-Bonsu, 2001). The registrar is the head of all academic related activities in the university. Internally, institutions are divided into academic faculties/schools and/or departments headed by deans and heads of departments respectively.

6.5.4 Types

The classification of higher education institutions (universities) in Ghana takes different forms and dimensions depending on the purpose of such a classification. The general/commomn typology used is the division of institutions into universities, polytechnics, and specialised institutions such as teacher training colleges and agricultural training colleges. The most common classification in recent times is viewing universities as public or private institutions. Universities are also classified according to their specialisation, which is more to do with public ones. For example, the University of Education, Winneba has a specific function of training teachers and the Kwame Nkrumah University for Science and Technology is science and technology oriented. The common classification of universities into research and teaching is less used and applicable in the Ghanaian context due to the nature of the historical development of higher education. All universities involve in both teaching and research. However, the concept of classifying universities into old and new seems to be gaining ground because of the establishment of two new public universities to the existing three.

6.5.5 Funding Higher Education

The capital expenditure of the education sector was 30.4 percent in 1999, out of this, tertiary education took about 12 percent. The Government of Ghana policy on funding higher education is based on a 1990 White Paper on reforms of the sector, the core component states: "it is intended to develop a system of cost sharing between government, the student population and the private sector." (NCTE, 1998: 7). Under cost sharing, government, students, the private sector and block grants from government through the National Council for Tertiary Education share the cost involved.

Although the Government is the major funding source for tertiary institutions, ten sources of funding have been identified currently: government provision, Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund), District Assemblies, Foundations/Endowment Funds, Alumni Associations, Donor (multilateral and bilateral), Internally generated (consultancies, exchange programmes, externally funded projects), Fees (foreign students), Fees (local students), and Contributions from industry (see GOG, 2002).

It is estimated that up to 95 percent of the funds used to run universities come from government subvention, even though the overall funds available regularly fall short of expenditure (see Daniel, 1996). In general, government allocation to higher education institutions caters for only 40 to 60 percent of financial requirements needed to run them. The allocation of funds to tertiary education by government is based on the 1997 formula developed by the NCTE in consultation with the universities and polytechnics. In this formula, funds are allocated based on the total number of enrolments. The 1998 allocation to the five universities suggests that 47 percent of the formula-based request of the universities were met. (Ghana Education Sector Development, 2002). According to a report attributed to the NCTE, the universities financial problems have been escalated by the rose in student enrolment in the past decade. The report further stated that despite the admission of only 25-30 percent of qualified applicants, the overall student population in Ghanaian universities rise from 9,997 in 1990/91 academic year to 31,501 in 1998/99 academic year (Harsh, 2000).

One significant development, although insufficient in itself, is the increase of universities' internally generated funds over the last decade due to the governments demand on them to generate funds to augment government's subvention. Internally generated funds from universities are said to have increased by over 300 percent between 1996 and 2000, from 7.7 percent in 1996 to 26.7[25] percent in 2000 (GOG, 2002).

In the Ghanaian context, student-funding sources are inextricably linked to university funding in the sense that students do not pay fees and universities are expected to provide certain facilities to support their studies free of charge. Hence, the availability of funding for students directly influences universities funding, in that it enables them (universities) to ask for payments of some of the services they provided. In connection to this, another important tertiary financing component worth mentioning is the Social Security and National Insurance Trust (SSNIT) student loan scheme. Instituted in 1988, it was hailed as a possible model for tertiary education in developing countries. However, after operating for more than a decade now, the SSNIT student loan scheme has proven self-unsustainable. It is documented that at the end of the year 2001 it had generated an interest subsidy deficit of $30 million, with loan payment rate at 8%. The loan scheme now has a total outstanding balance that represents at least 20% of SSNIT investment portfolio. The main debate on higher education in Ghana today is concentrated on cost-sharing. Almost everyone agrees that the nation's universities need heavy doses of cash to survive, but acknowledge that it has become conspicuously impossible for the state alone to finance higher education, hence cost-sharing between all stakeholders. The point of departure among the various interest groups is the 'hows' of the cost-sharing.

6.5.6 Participation and Students

In the Ghanaian context, access refers to the 'places and facilities available for potential applicants', (GOG, 2002). The main issue regarding participation in higher education in Ghana is access, which is the availability of places and facilities to accommodate qualified candidates, not students' inability to complete programmes of studies. Generally, universities have the overall powers to admit; admission into universities in Ghana is based on grades obtained from the Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination. Mature students with some relevant qualifications and work experiences are considered through various continuing education programmes and lifelong learning, although each university has its own criteria of admission.

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[25] This is as a percentage of non-government sources.

The country's three premier universities were established when the population was barely 7 million; by 1990, the population rose up to 15 million, thus putting pressure on the three institutions. Over the last decade however, there has been comparatively some improvement in the access rate of potential students into higher education due to the establishment of more university institutions, particularly private ones. Despite this improvement, the rate of participation in higher education is still appalling. Reports indicate that the participating rate in higher education of people aged between 18 and 21 years is as low as 2.5 percent. According to National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) statistics, between 1990/97 and 2000/01 an average of 32.3 percent of the total qualified applicants were admitted into universities (NCTE, 2001). Female participation in higher education is low as compared to their male counterparts. Out of the 32 percent admitted within the same period, females formed only 26.6 percent while males 73.4 percent, showing a very wide disparity between the two genders. This contrasts with females forming the majority in the UK system. The generally low participation rate is attributed to the inability of tertiary institutions to admit all qualified applicants due to high growth in population without a proportionate expansion of tertiary institutions, and inadequate academic and support staff.

6.5.7 Teaching and Research

Teaching and research are the traditional functions of higher education in Ghana. Although there are no immediate figures to illustrate the proportions of teaching and research in the universities, there is a general acknowledgement that teaching and learning represents the main activity in the university. This, in most cases, involves formal lectures, laboratory work and practical fieldwork. Assessment of student work is usually examination (written) centred. A Review of Education Reforms Report noted some of the factors affecting quality and relevance as the mode of teaching that involve practices such as "dictating notes and giving out lecture notes in the form of handouts" (GOG, 2002). Although, there has been a growing involvement in distance education by public higher education institutions across the country, the mode of teaching and learning remains within the traditional practices. Lecturers often travel to designated centres to hold lessons with students; however due to the gradual development of information technology, it is envisaged by policy makers that within the next five years distance education should be delivered effectively and efficiently through these advanced communication technologies. As part of measures to improve the quality of teaching and learning in higher education institutions, the National Council for Tertiary Education has set up the Teaching and Learning Innovation Fund (TALIF) to help academics to acquire facilities to support effective and innovative teaching and to conduct research into new innovative ways of teaching.

Research is one of the traditional and important activities of higher education in Ghana. Research in universities declined in the 1970s due to the economic slump that occurred in the country. The Tertiary Education Project I (TEP I) was instituted as a Research Grant (World Bank funded) to boost up research activities in the universities (NCTE, 1998). Research projects supported by this grant were expected to be relevant to the socio-economic needs of the country with potentials for immediate application to practical problems. Although university research is a combination of basic (academic) and applied (contractual), research is generally academic oriented. Tertiary education research is said to have little or no impact on national development since the last two decades. In the midst of very limited resources for research, universities are trying hard to live up to the demands of the day. Despite this, the Review Report of Education Reforms in Ghana states: "Quality of teaching is informed by research. However, research and publications from tertiary institutions have not been satisfactory due to inadequate funding and the few lecturers available been over-burdened with teaching" (GOG, 2002: 129-30). It is also argued that the unsatisfactory state of research is due in part to the lack of 'clearly articulated' research agenda at both the national and institutional levels. The same report also indicated that there is a wide gap between higher education programmes and the knowledge and skills relevant to industry. According to a report by The Task Force on Higher Education and Society entitled *Higher Education in Developing Countries: Peril and Promise*, in 1995 Ghana universities had only 116 publications and citations on research in the Sciences and Social Sciences as compared to 5,393 for the Republic of Korea[26], *which* is Ghana's contemporary country. The United Kingdom had 61,734 (World Bank, 2000).

[26] In the 1960s Ghana and the Republic of Korea were at the same level in terms of their developmental status. Korea invested in the development of its human resources while Ghana invested in infrastructural development. Korea is now reckoned as more developed than Ghana.

6.5.8 Infrastructure and Resources

Resources (both human and material) are basic and important requirements for effective higher education delivery. In Ghana, resources in higher education include people (lecturers etc), facilities (computers, laboratory equipment etc), infrastructure (lecture and seminar rooms, laboratory blocks etc). One of the major constraints of higher education is the lack of these resources. According to statistics from the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE, 2001), about 40 percent of teaching positions in the universities are vacant. In terms of physical infrastructure, although universities are making do with the very limited resources available, there is generally lack of 'adequate and modern academic facilities' such as laboratories, lecture halls, well equipped libraries, ICT facilities.

6.5.9 Evaluation and quality control

The Review of Education Reforms in Ghana Report views quality assurance as the 'internal and external control, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms put in place to ensure that the education offered is kept at high standards' (GOG, 2002: 131). The country has put in place a body known as the National Accreditation Board (NAB), which is responsible for the accreditation of both public and private universities regarding the content and standard of the programmes. Specific important areas of attention of the board are quality of programmes, numbers and quality of staff, physical facilities and equipment such as libraries, laboratories, lecture rooms etc, and funding levels among other things (see Effah and Mensaa-Bonsu, 2001; GOG, 2002). Another quality control body is the National Board for Professional and Technical Examinations (NABPTEX), charged with roles ranging from formulation and administering examinations, evaluation, assessment and certification in non-university tertiary institutions to control standards in related areas as skill and syllabus competences (see Effah and Mensah-Bonsu, 2001). At institutional levels, some form of evaluation and quality control exist, mainly for purposes of promotion rather than as a form of regular check on the standards and quality of the delivery. Other forms arguably are the use of external examiners in assessments. However, the general feeling is that such mechanisms lack effective planning and regularity (power) to have an impact.

6.5.10 Higher Education Initiatives

In recent years, a series of initiatives have been embarked upon in the higher education scene; one of such initiatives is distance education. Distance education is not a new idea in the Ghanaian higher education scene, but its current intensity and widespread practice among the university institutions nationally has created some substantial attention from policy makers and stakeholders. This is a practice that provides an alternative mode of delivery to the 'traditional site-based' mode of delivery in higher education. The dual-mode of distance education in which universities organise distance learning side by side with regular university programmes is what is being practiced in Ghanaian universities such as the University of Ghana, University of Education of Winneba and the University of Cape Coast. Centres for distance education have been set up by these universities in both the southern and northern sectors of the country.

Another initiative in the higher education sector in Ghana is the increase participation of the private sector. Since the last decade, many private higher education institutions have been established. According to the Review of Education Reforms in Ghana Report, there are about 80 higher education institutions in operation in the country out of which the National Accreditation Board accredited only about 21 (GOG, 2002). The rise in this area may be attributed to the limited places in the public higher education institutions and their inability to develop and run job-related programmes. However, it is estimated that private higher education institutions account for not more the 5 percent of annual enrolment.

Cooperation between Ghanaian higher education institutions and their international counterparts has existed since the beginning of higher education in the country; however, current trends indicate an increase of interest and scope in such collaborations. In recent years, there have also been increased collaborations of higher education institutions in Ghana with important international organisations such as the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), UK's Department for International Development (DFID), World Bank, United Nations Children Educational Fund (UNICEF), and World Vision International. These organisations, usually developmental-oriented, execute some of their programmes through collaborative projects with institutions.

Challenges currently facing higher education in Ghana include funding, access, quality and relevance as well as management and governance.

The political relationship between tertiary education and the state is situated in various dimensions. In the first place, the universities are the creation of the state (run by politicians) to produce its workforce requirements, lead intellectual debate and criticism (see Girdwood, 1999). In another sense, both exist as partners craving to maintain their influence over each other. Since independence, the relationship that exists between the central government and universities is one that has gone through comfortable and uncomfortable times, underpinned by some level of understanding and conflict based on an appreciable political force and direction. It is suggested that in post-colonial bureaucracies, universities are still pinned down to prescription from the ministries of education, which creates conditions that are detrimental to university and departmental overall operation and development. Tertiary education, like pre-university education, is under the Ministry of Education. The National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) established by law in 1993 functions like the Higher Education Funding Councils of the United Kingdom; with membership involving a broad range of people including representatives from universities, other institutions, research centres and industry. It is in-charge of tertiary education and plays a delegated role on behalf of the ministry and has a broad range of advisory role, which includes "an effective buffer (*between the government and tertiary institutions*), policy-making, financial or budgetary responsibilities, and centre for reliable statistical data and information" (Effah and Mensah-Bonsu 2001: 31). Hence, politically motivated policies are channelled through the NCTE.

6.6 NATIONAL POLICY PERSPECTIVE

The first national policy deliberation on higher education in Ghana after the decline in the practice and quality in the 1970s and 80s mainly due to under-funding was by the University Rationalisation Committee (URC) (1988) set up by Government to study and draw up recommendations for a revamp of the system. The committee recommendations included modalities to expand the system, improve relevance and quality and to ensure financial sustainability. The Government's White Paper on 'Reforms to the Tertiary Education system' (1991) was a modification of the recommendations of the URC that serves as guidelines to higher education policy and practice. Four broad policy directions emerge from the policy objectives of the White Paper; integration of all post-secondary institutions into the system to improve access and participation, establishing a sound financial support through cost-effective measures and increase funding to the sector. It is also to improve quality by ensuring that higher education programmes reflect the development needs of the nation as well as creating a balance between programmes and the demand of the labour market.

The policy perspective of higher education in Ghana seems to be characteristic, to some extent, of the general policy concerns of almost every nation, particularly with regards to access, funding and relevance in the 21st Century, as reflected in the Report of the Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 'Meeting the Challenges of Education in the Twenty First Century' (2002). The report emphasised on higher education meeting the needs of current economic challenges of the nation by producing the requisite human resources. Despite national policy direction of making the system financially sustainable and relevant to the needs of the nation, various evaluative reports have lamented on the weak financial situation of institutions and irrelevance of some the programmes to the 21st Century demands (see NCTE, 1998; GOG, 2002). Hence, policy wise, higher education is directed at solving the developmental needs of the nation, where the entire delivery (core activities) is geared towards training in areas that are directly relevant to societal needs and aspirations, suggesting a form of service. In practice, a different scenario seems to exist, the system is still financially constrained and delivery based on the traditional mode of producing individuals fit for white-collar jobs.

6.7 CONCLUSION

As a developing country and a former British colony, Ghana's educational system is still haunted by not only this colonial legacy, but conceived unconsciously as an attribute of educational quality in the 'Western' sense. Although there have been policy statements and documents expressing the national objective of making education and higher education in particular relevant to the needs and aspiration of the nation in the past, very little seems to have been achieved. Debates on making Ghanaian higher education relevant and responsible have more or less remained at the theoretical level. The system remains academic-oriented and examination-centred. This predicament is more to do with the interests of leaders and vanguards of society that places the satisfaction of donor conditions and interests for a short-term benefit over long-term benefits of a relevant higher education system. While higher education institutions elsewhere have substantially decreased their dependence on public funds as the only source through creating innovative programmes relevant to all stakeholders that bring in funds to supplement other sources, higher education institutions in Ghana heavily rely on central government's allocation to operate. With central government unable to provide fully their financial needs, the institutions' main challenge, remain funding, human and material resource and access.

Having had an overview of higher education in the University for Development Studies' context (Ghana), it may be relevant and useful to make an analysis and a reflection on the state of higher education in Ghana within the framework of the philosophies of higher education (epistemological, political and pluralistic)[27] identified. Higher education in Ghana seems to be operating on a complex array of interrelated forces, which makes it difficult to pin down a particular philosophy. There is the state 'polity' that believes (at least at the political and policy level) that the system needs to be relevant not only to the national socio-political and economic needs, but to the demands and challenges of the twenty-first century, which means factoring in the dictates of the interconnected world. There is also the powerful donor whose imperialist interest must be adequately catered for in any policy-delivery process. Then, the question of a powerful educational legacy: the colonial legacy – academic oriented, deeply rooted in the core of the system has beaten potent and strategic efforts to turn round. Academia is caught in a web of brain drain due to economic hardships, while there is the stirring and inviting global knowledge economy whose resource is 'knowledge' and the 'knowledgeable'.

On one side of the picture, policy deliberations and documents as contained in major higher education reform reports/documents such as the 1988 University Rationalisation Committee Report, Ghana Government White Paper on Reforms to the Tertiary Education System (1991) and Ghana-Vision 2020 Report (1995) call for higher education to be relevant and directed to developing the country. These policy perspectives fall within the political philosophy of higher education in which the purpose of higher education is deemed to solve problems confronting the society. Knowledge, knowledge production and knowledge dissemination should be problem-centred, practically oriented towards dealing effectively with the challenges or problems confronting the Ghanaian society.

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[7] See chapter two.

On the other side is the practical reality of the function of higher education. As a system, founded on the then British elite's assumption, graduates of institutions were expected to take up white-collar jobs to help in the administration of the colony and other official positions such as magistrates etc. This legacy has become a convention passed from one generation to another. Thus, higher education has a problem of supply-demand gap, whereby there is an over supply of graduate labour in areas that are not relevant to national development, the labour market and/or global economic competitiveness, and under-supply of graduates in critical areas like medicine, engineering, information technology etc (see Boateng and Ofori-Sarpong, 2002). In this circumstance, the philosophy, to some degree, is associated with the liberal or watered down form of epistemological philosophy in which knowledge is sought for its own sake. The system is unconsciously academic oriented by legacy not by intention.

Donor conditions and pressure is a force to reckon with when it comes to determining the direction of funded projects. One example is the initial perspective of the World Bank in the development of the national higher education system for national development. While national authorities and stakeholders believed in the ability of an effective higher education policy and delivery to propel national development, the World Bank perspective stressed that the development of the basic education sector was the core to national development. Hence, policy implementation at the higher education level became stagnated with lack of funding. Additionally, higher education policies supported by donors are often entrenched with "interests that defend 'status quo' for the benefits gained" (see Dei, 2004). In this particular instance, the philosophy of higher education remains political – the politics of choice of purpose: to structure the system to meet national needs and aspirations or those of the donor. However, the most important question is, will the nation be willing to pay more tax to support higher education policy and practice that reflect national needs rather than the donor?

Although, national policy perspectives on higher education sees the whole activities (teaching, research and outreach) within higher education as a form of service that has the ability to bring about the needed development in the country, the philosophy guiding delivery and practices seems otherwise. In practice and in most cases, the student's experience in higher education is one of accumulation of raw knowledge that probably is of little relevance in the search for employment after studies and particularly to national development.

CHAPTER 7: UNDERSTANDING AND INTERPRETING POLICIES AND PRACTICES GUIDING CORE ACTIVITIES AT MIDDLESEX UNIVERSITY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and interpretes the empirical data generated from Middlesex University. This is the micro-level data, involving data generated through interviews, documents and artefacts. The chapter gives a historical overview of the university and its structure and organisation. The themes identified in the data is presented and interpreted in the light of the research questions. The main objective of this study is to explore to understand the place of service in the academic life of the university in other words whether service is a function besides teaching/learning and research or an integral part of the overall university activities.

7.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF MIDDLESEX UNIVERSITY

Middlesex University as an educational institution, has a history stretching back to 1878 when traced to the constituent colleges that come to form the then Middlesex Polytechnic in the 1970s from which the university originated. Three higher education colleges in north London merged to form Middlesex Polytechnic in 1973 – they were Enfield College of Technology, Hendon College of Technology and Hornsey College of Art. Then the Trent Park College of Education and the College of All Saints (started in 1878) joined up in 1974 and 1977 respectively. By 1977, the polytechnic expanded with the acquisition of other sites. The merger of the different colleges to form the polytechnic from which the university was founded gave it its multi-campus characteristics (Middlesex University, 2002b). The different orientations of the cohort of colleges influenced the programmes the polytechnic offered, with initial programmes including science and engineering, technology, teacher education, Art and Drama. Polytechnics were generally practical and vocationally oriented, with an objective of training middle-level labour force. Hence, Middlesex was no different; its programmes were principally job oriented; the modular programme introduced in the 1980s and seen as an important innovation in the polytechnic's delivery, encouraged many professionals to upgrade their skills. Middlesex expanded its taught courses to include the humanities and the arts (while axing the engineering programme in the early 1990s), moving gradually towards the 'old' universities' orientations. However, the polytechnic had no degree awarding powers and the Council for National Academic Awards validated its programmes. Expansion of the scope of programmes offered in the university occurred when the North London College of Health Studies become part of Middlesex bringing with it health training programmes such as nursing and midwifery that had funding advantages. Initially, the polytechnic was under the London boroughs of Barnet, Enfield and Haringey (boroughs for the founding colleges), and funded by these local councils. As a result of the 1988 Education Act, Middlesex assumed the status of a higher education corporation that enabled it in 1989 to get direct funding from the then Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council. The polytechnic's orientation and involvement in Europe and European Community projects boosted its funding in the 1980s (however reduced in the 1990s) (Ibid).

In 1992, the Middlesex with other polytechnics were elevated to university status under the Further and Higher Education Act. This automatically conferred on it degree awarding powers. The main objective of the Act was to increase the proportion of the population enrolled in university education (see Graham, 2002). As part of efforts to deal with the financial challenges the university was facing, it drew up strategies to increase its enrolment and operated as an access-oriented institution with concentration in the North London area. The university also developed links with "local schools and colleges and become involved in economic regeneration and community projects" (see Middlesex University, 2002a: 6) particularly those connected with the European Union projects in the Lee Valley area of north London.

Within the chronological classification of higher education institutions in the United Kingdom, Middlesex University is in the group of 'post-1992' or 'new' universities; however, recent classifications put it under 'mainstream' universities. Contrasting the 'old' universities such as Oxford to Middlesex, it may be stated that while, the old universities concentrate more on research with some teaching (and could be termed a research-led university), Middlesex has a higher proportion of its activities on teaching. After gaining university status in 1992, Middlesex mission emphasised widening access and participation, a student-centred approach and local and international partnerships. This was in contrast to the direction of some new universities towards a research-centred approach. The revised version of the mission and corporate plan of the University in 1997 emphasised quality teaching; encourage students to take responsibility of their own learning, and more importantly defining research as the core activity of the university. However, the challenges in the current context in which higher education operates have placed every university in the United Kingdom in the difficult situation of how to manage the future effectively and efficiently. As a result, in 2002, the university had a discussion on its future which was presented in a report entitled *Middlesex University: the next ten years*. This report (arguably) helped to develop a deeper understanding of its state, particularly the strengths and weaknesses of the university and the opportunities open to it. The discussion in the report resulted in a new mission statement and more visibly, the re-branding of the university in 2004, resulting in a change of the university's logo.

Presently (October 2006), the University is located in four sites in the north London area: Archway and Hospitals, Cat Hill, Enfield, Hendon and Trent Park. In addition, it has a campus in Dubai and offices in other countries such as China, India and Kenya. It is also embarking on a restructuring exercise that has led to the closure of some of its campuses, and earmarking others for future closure. Several job positions have been lost and others created, discussions are far advanced on simplifying the academic provision, and a possibility of merger of some schools (Arts and Lifelong Learning and Education; Computer and Business?).

7.3 STRUCTURE AND ORGANISATION

Board of Governors has the responsibility to ensure that the University is effectively managed, and that its future development is well planned. Like all universities in the UK, a Chancellor, who is a titular head, leads the university. The Vice-Chancellor, Professor Michael Driscoll, is the chief executive responsible for the day-to-day running of the university. Other important bodies of the university hierarchy include the Academic Board and the Executive; the former is responsible for all academic related issues and the latter for the overall leadership and management related issues. There are several Pro- Vice Chancellors responsible for different sectors of the university activities. There are five academic schools (faculties): School of Arts, School of Lifelong Learning and Education[28], School of Computing Science, Business School and School of Health and Social Sciences.

[8] The Schools of Arts and Lifelong Learning and Education were merged in August 2006 as one school.

A dean heads each school, with several directors: Director for Research and Postgraduate Studies (DRPS), Director of Curriculum, Learning and Quality (DCLQ) and Director of Business Development (DBD). There are directors/heads for specific functions peculiar to some schools, for example the Head of Collaborative Studies in the School of Arts. The post of Director of Resources and Administration which was part of the administrative structure of each school has been cancelled or removed as a result of recent restructuring exercise the University is undertaking. Within the various schools, there also exist other heads such as Curriculum Leaders and Academic Group Chairs. A recent addition to the University management structure is the position of Campus Director; who is responsible for the general management and administration of the campus assigned to.

As at October 2006 the breakdown of academic portfolio of the University is:

- School of Arts – Art, design, electronic arts, humanities, media and cultural studies, and performing arts
- Business School – Business, law, management studies
- School of Computing Science – Computing science and IT
- School of Health and Social Sciences – Nursing, midwifery and healthcare medicine related professional studies, Social sciences
- School of Lifelong Learning and Education – Teacher education, Product design and engineering, design and technology,
- Work based learning and continuing professional development (National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership under SLLE is the main player, although it has links with other schools in the University.)

7.4 NOTION OF SERVICE

In the direct approach, respondents were asked to state their views about the assumption that service is a function of the university distinct from the teaching and research functions. Respondents demonstrated a level of unfamiliarity with the concept of service; many of them also expressed uncertainty about its meaning and interpretation, for example a respondent noted:

"The term is not easily defined and it is not clear. I have never actually sat down to think about what I am doing [teaching], whether that is service or not...obviously the job we do here is a form of service to society because we train teachers for schools in this area".

Another respondent said:

"...if, for example, I understand service to mean our validation of courses taught in partner colleges, then service could be considered different from teaching and research...but if I understand it in terms of the research projects we conduct for our local partners, then research and service could mean the same thing...So it all depends on what is meant by service".

Responses from other academics showed broad views of the term, for instance, an academic said:

"...the answer to this would depend on one's understanding of the term...service means different things in different contexts...to me I will say it refers to the voluntary work the University offers to the public, when I say the University I refer to the whole university community – lecturers, students and so on [when asked for an example] for instance, our membership of the Enfield Strategic Partnership Programme is one example, we provide, offer some expertise or if you like consultancy work to the partnership, a partnership comprising of all organisations in the borough".

Yet, other academics showed a level of familiarity with the term, viewing service within the framework of their jobs, for example, a lecturer in the School of Health and Social Sciences said:

"I think that teaching and research, the work we do here is service to a large extent...we represent one of the training partners of the NHS [National Health Services]; we train nurses, care workers and health related professionals, and our teaching and research work underpin this...we also run work based learning programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate level".

Another academic said:

"This is my personal view, I think a university...has traditionally [pause] has understandably that a university, has focus its activity on teaching and research; but I have a question, at what cost and what value we got from there? Cost and value are now strongly attached to university activities".

However, other respondents had contrary views; an example of this is a response from an academic in the School of Arts:

"My view about the assumption is that it is, probably, a postmodernists' view of the university; one of the narrow views that threatens the existence of the university... Well, the fact of the matter is that it is true in many cases, for example Middlesex University Innovations and Middlesex University Press are examples of the business services, we also have a Director responsible for business in this school,... but it is a narrow way of university engagement...".

The responses demonstrated academics unfamiliarity with the term service; many of them took brief moments to think about the meaning of the term before answering the question put to them. While a number of the respondents tried to put forward their understanding of the term service, others admitted their unfamiliarity with it (as can be seen from the quotations above). Despite this, almost all agreed in principle that teaching and research could be interpreted as a form of service to community; for example a respondent in the School of Computing Science said:

"Speaking as a Curriculum Leader, I personally would not agree with the assumption because the rule of the game is changed, all contents of the curriculum presumably, should be attractive to students, should be relevant to students future job prospects...and that is what we are trying to do...we are constantly under pressure, not only to increase student numbers, but we also think of how to retain them; their being in the programme has financial implications for the University".

The overall responses to the direct approach could be summarised into three broad themes:

- The concept of service has different meanings, ranging from voluntary work by the university to its immediate community, using academic programmes to meet the needs of individuals and organisations, and as a postmodernists' view of the university among other things.
- Although the service concept has proven to be unfamiliar to many respondents, its meaning of tailoring the core activities to the needs of students and external clients is something that frequently occurred in academics' responses.
- Despite these views, the extent to which teaching and research activities of Middlesex University is translated into 'service activities to society' seems to be broadly limited to attracting students or increasing student numbers and responding to a call from 'the market'. This illustrates the vagueness in the responses given. Although the focus of this research is not to primarily determine or evaluate the quality of the university's core activities, the interpretation section of this chapter would make a critical analysis of the reality of the assertions.

7.5 CORPORATE PLAN

Like most higher education institutions in the UK and elsewhere, Middlesex has a corporate plan that sets out the main goals of the University over the medium term. The University's 2005 *Corporate Planning Statement 2005/06 – 2009/10* which is a 'rolling five-year plan' and revised every year, contains among other things a written statement of *Mission* and *Vision*, which formally represents its overall aim and direction. The current mission and vision as stated in the corporate plan refers to the mission and vision as a 'strategic statement'. The mission states:

'Middlesex University aims to be a global university committed to meeting the needs and ambitions of a culturally and internationally diverse range of students by providing challenging academic programmes underpinned by innovative research, scholarship and professional practice.'.
(Middlesex University, 2005a: 6)

The vision represents what the university will be (or the nature of the university) by the year 2010. It expounds on the mission statement by stating:

"Over the next ten years Middlesex University will develop its role as a leading London-based international university, championing a socially inclusive approach to participation in higher education" (Ibid).

Almost all the deans interviewed stated that their individual school mission statements are formulated within the framework of the University's Corporate Plan; a respondent stated:

"...related to this is the vision of the school;...we work towards becoming a leading centre in the delivery of challenging business management and allied programmes to diverse students and clients who contribute in business and the community".

Furthermore, the University vision stresses on balanced excellence by prioritising excellence in learning and teaching, research, scholarship, development of professional practice and stimulating student experience; the baseline being the provision of outstanding and quality academic programmes at all its campuses, nationally and internationally, to meet the needs of its clients. This is to be achieved by developing a staff that is talented, highly skilled and well-motivated; creating a conducive learning and working environment; and develop an effective and efficient governance, leadership and management style that is in consonance with contemporary demands. In addition, commitment to the provision of academic programmes that are in high demand and respond to the needs and expectations of students; build a strong and robust financial position; and enter into relationships with business and the community that would be mutually beneficial. As well as enter into productive partnership with schools, colleges and other universities. A senior academic noted:

"...what I mean by creating and maintaining balanced excellence in teaching and research is that we take both teaching and research very seriously, we give equal attention to both, we also step up our interaction with industry...and we aim at increasing student numbers at the undergraduate and graduate levels, at home and internationally."

One important transformation dubbed the 'new direction' is the refocus from being a domestic regional university which prioritises on access and widening participation at the undergraduate level to involve much more on a global dimension through an expansion of intake or recruitment to include graduate, international and work-based students both from the local communities and around the world. This redirection, according to the plan, is a response to the radical changes occurring in the context in which UK higher education operates. In connection to this, a respondent said:

"Universities in this country are being turned into business entities, the competition is intense, our annual income defines who we are...so that is why we need rethinking, and unfortunately the management seems to be running out of ideas..."

For any higher education institution, therefore, to guarantee its own sustainability and place in this uncertain terrain, it should respond not only appropriately but effectively and efficiently to the wave of changes affecting the higher education 'enterprise'. The University's mission and vision strongly stress on developing academic programmes, research and scholarship that are linked and relevant to both business and public sector organisations and the community needs in general. However, to what extent does this well formulated and focused corporate plan translate into reality? This and other related issues will be examined later in the interpretation section below.

7.6 TEACHING AND LEARNING

7.6.1 Mission

Teaching and learning is one of the main activities of Middlesex University, more than three quarters of academic staff time is used in this activity. Comparing the magnitude of a school's involvement in research as against teaching, a school's Director of Research stated:

"If we were to guess a figure for the school [staff involvement in research] as a whole is probably in the region of one sixth [1/6], say 15 to 16 percent, somewhere around that"

A lecturer also noted:

"Our teaching commitment is so tight that we rarely have anytime to do any other thing, so in reality teaching virtually takes up all my time...although once a while we do joint research projects with Enfield Council"

This indicates the volume of teaching load and magnitude of staff involvement in teaching. While every school has its own separate teaching mission, the underlying element over all is to achieve excellence in teaching and learning in accordance with the general objective of learning and teaching stated in the corporate plan. A Director of Curriculum, Learning and Quality of a school stated:

"The teaching and learning mission of this school flows from the University's teaching and learning strategy...our mission is to provide high quality teaching and learning, teaching and learning that is student centred, and more importantly based on research..."

There are indications that both official documents and academics equate quality learning and teaching to the idea of the process being reflective needs and expectations of diverse students, collaborating organisations and industry. However, familiarity and up-to-date knowledge of the University's corporate plan on teaching and learning was demonstrated by most senior academics (deans and directors) interviewed; many mainstream lectures showed limited knowledge of the corporate mission and in most cases referred the researcher to University documents. The very few lecturers (two) who discussed their module objectives and linked to the teaching and learning strategy of the University had recently been involved in the development or redesigning of their modules.

There has been consultation of staff and students across the University geared towards revising the academic framework (although arguments have been made that the time frame for consultation was inadequate); the result has recently been published. The title 'Learning Framework' is adopted to describe the new academic framework; the Learning Framework has an objective of developing "programmes, teaching and learning that are attractive to students" (Middlesex University, 2006b). To achieve this objective, the University has developed Learning and Teaching Strategies (LTSs) that serves as a blue print for individual schools to generate their own LTSs. The dean of each school is charged with quality and standards in its academic activities; in addition, each school is appointed a Director of Curriculum, Learning and Quality (DCLQ) who is delegated to monitor and control the standard and quality of courses and programmes run in the school. According to the DCLQ in the School of Lifelong Learning and Education, "I work closely with Curriculum Leaders... my duties include monitoring and controlling of all programmes in the school; curriculum validation, overseeing assessment process, delivery of the programme and other related matters that are likely to affect the quality of the teaching and learning process".

7.6.2 Academic Programmes (formulation, delivery and evaluation)

Middlesex University academic provision is organised into semesters where each academic year is divided into two semesters. Programmes offered range from certificate in Higher Education level to Masters of Philosophy (MPhil) and/or Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) research degrees and Masters Taught degrees. Programmes also include those of Professional Masters (MProf) and Doctorate (DProf) run mainly through work based learning. At the undergraduate level, a student could major or minor in a particular programme. According to a respondent,

"...our academic structure or if you like the academic framework is based on what is called the credit accumulation system, it is a flexible system, err students take and pass modules to gain the requisite number of credits to gain their awards, for example, 360 credit points is required to gain a honours degree."

Academic programmes are delivered through the Modular Degree Scheme (MDS) in which the needs of individual students are raised above pre-planned subject combinations. Students are given a wide range of options and flexibility in which they can combine a number of suitable/appropriate modules to achieve the requisite credit points to obtain their degrees. The flexibility also allows students to change their initial awards intended in the process of their studies, for instance changing from a minor to a major or vice versa.

The academic provision is based on the Modular Degree Scheme in which there is flexibility regarding students' choice of modules (subjects) and combination of modules (subjects) to gain their degrees: undergraduate and postgraduate. However, a recent report on the proliferation of flexibility of choice has been blamed on the increasing complexity in the academic provision of the University. Although the implicit and explicit aims of programmes and courses are to meet the needs of the students or partner organisations, the end product is usually a frustration not only to lecturers and students, but to administrators, for example a lecturer stated:

"...the modular system is so complicated that many students complete their programmes with lot of unrelated modules that leaves them in an awkward position when it comes to job search...".

Despite this, the University's policy statement on curriculum quality, content and design emphases the curriculum matching with the varied needs, experiences and expectations of its students and partners. This policy guides the validation of programmes and formulation of curricular. In most cases, before a particular programme is validated, a strong case is presented to justify its inclusion in the school academic programmes; this is usually based on an assumed level of demand and the economic implication to the university. This is reflected in a message from the Vice-Chancellor to the academic staff that read in part:

"A vital part of any plan to develop sound finances must be to ensure that all courses are generating sufficient income to meet the costs of teaching and the other services we provide to our students" (Middlesex University, 2006a).

The policy states that before a programme is validated a pre-validating approval at both school and university level is required to ensure that there is market demand for the programme (see Middlesex University, 2002a; Middlesex University, 2004). The process of curriculum formulation is generally a consultative process, which could take a direct or indirect form depending on the school and the nature of the programme in question; some may just be historically situated (historically part of the university curriculum). The direct form involves consulting with relevant professional bodies or partners, for example, the initial teacher education programmes in the School of Lifelong Learning and Education and the nursing and midwifery programmes at the School of Health and Social Sciences. In the former, the curricula of programmes are designed based on Training and Development Agency (TDA) guidelines and the university is charged with the responsibility of delivering the programme to the satisfaction of the client or partner; and in the latter, the curriculum is within the National Health Services (NHS) programme guide. According to an academic in the School of Lifelong Learning and Education

"...the University runs the programme on behalf of the Teacher Training Agency now called the Training and Development Agency, so we follow the guidelines laid down by the agency, the nature and the structure of the training across England is determined by this body ...but we usually confer on a number of issues as total number of admissions and the pattern of training".

Other direct consultations involve discussions of the curriculum content between the University (subject groups) and partner organisations or industrialists. This usually occurs in formulating the curriculum of programmes run by the National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership (NCWBLP) located in the School of Lifelong Learning and Education. According to the Director of National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership,

"Lots of our efforts are in working in partnership with organisations often those with employers, for example Marks and Spencer, Ministry of Defence; there might...be other providers of learning...for example Professional Development Foundation or Metanoia Institute. So creating and developing partnership is what we do, the curriculum is negotiated and self-directed".

In the latter (indirect form of consultation), the academics in consultation with the DCLQ consider the general demand for a particular programme, or how strategic that programme will be in attracting students; for example, an academic said:

"Ok...we have five curriculum groups...a bunch of the curriculum is dictated...by our understandings of the demands, well, our understandings of things like the economy, our understandings of things like the world of work for the students. But we take our directions, I suppose from, well, historically we had certain subjects and certain things we've always taught in our school, but the most historic, if you like, is art and design...We add things that we think the society wants to better their lot".

Another lecturer, in the School of Computing Science, noted:

"We recently developed a programme called Foundation Certificate in Computing with Business in this school as a route into computing science to attract students of all ages who have no A Level Science or Mathematics but have the desire to gain a degree in computing science. This programme is a replacement of our Science Foundation Year programme, which we saw to be failing to meet the needs of the students because student numbers were falling".

The basis for curriculum could also be seen as historically being part of the university taught areas, for instance, subjects taught in initial teacher training programmes seem to have no direct bearings on university income, but just the usual training of teachers to teach in schools. However, the University also consider the turnover of programmes in terms of demand for them, for example a respondent said:

"Citizenship and some secondary subjects could be removed because of the diminishing numbers of applications for them".

Related to this, is the recent axing of *History* as one of the teaching subjects in the School of Arts apparently with reasons associated with the diminishing patronage and income of the subject.

Generally, curriculum delivery at Middlesex can be analysed from two overlapping and mutually interactive dimensions: one, the way in which the learning and teaching activities are carried out, for example, lecture, seminars, work-based, and two, the students' mode of study (such as full-time, part-time or distance). Running through the two dimensions is the use of ICT for example the internet. OASIS is the University's web-based learning tools that enable students to manage their studies, control their learning and participate in online discussions. Curriculum is delivered through lectures, seminars, and project modes and/or a combination of these. According to an academic:

"I use a combination of lectures and seminars, I have large groups for both modules, two hours are used for general lectures and then students are organised into groups for two seminars at certain times of the week... Yes, colleagues and RSTs [Research Student/Tutors] help in running the seminars."

However, the type and nature of the subject determines the mode of its delivery. Many of the modules in the full-time undergraduate level programmes are delivered through a combination of lectures, seminars and presentations, such as in Business Studies, and many in the Social Sciences. On the other hand, practical oriented programmes such as Art, Performing Arts, Electronic Art in the School of Arts, and Product Design and Engineering in the school of Lifelong Learning include in their modes of delivery practical performances and exhibitions apart from lectures and seminar schedules. In connection to this, a respondent said:

"...because of the practical nature of the module it is a combination of instructions and practical activities, though sometimes we hold lecture sessions, bulk of the teaching and learning activities are carried out by students in the studios".

In the National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership (NCWBLP) and other similar centres in schools such as the School of Health and Social Sciences (SHSS) where work-based learning programmes are ran, delivery is in a form of distance education and it is part-time. A greater part of the actual learning process occurs in the workplace as a project, where programme activity is centred on real life cases or problems arising from the workplace. In this situation, physical contact with students is very limited and is often one-to-one contacts, and the rest is via email, and sometimes by telephone. Individual students are attached to specific programme persons. The director of NCWBLP stated:

"Ok, there is a whole different pattern of delivery depending upon the needs of particular learners and their organisations. So it may vary from people who live locally and who feel it is convenient to come to the university, so they can come to campus-based sessions; it may be that the programme is taking place in the company, in which case we will go out to the employing company to support the programme. It may be that we are dealing with individuals, individuals who can not regularly come to campus, in which case we would use electronic forms of communication in order to support the programme".

The use of ICT in delivery has generally been limited to the University's OASIS (Middlesex University Learning Environment supported by WebCT software) and also Middlesex Integrated Student Information Services (MISIS). Postgraduate taught courses are delivered mainly through the traditional lecture and seminar modes, while research degrees are more flexibly delivered, combining lectures, seminars and independent student learning activities. For example, in the School of Lifelong Learning and Education, the mandatory Learning Circle (LC) seminal group meetings for some PhD students is one innovative way of delivering part of the research training component of their studies, apart from conference presentations. However, the MProf and DProf programmes are project oriented and flexibly delivered, usually through collaboration between the University and the work place. In addition, students are offered placement opportunities in organisations within the community to gain experiences related to their programmes.

Assessment of students' work is based on formative and summative evaluation; to help students understand the areas in which they perform well and areas they could improve, and as a way to award students credits. The methods of assessment vary from one subject area to another and from one level to another, but built on part continuous assessment of the students work (assignments and presentations) and/or part on examinations. According to a lecturer,

"Assessment of students work in this school is assignment-based, this means that evaluation of students' work and progress is based on the assignments we give them; a minimum of two essays and a report".

Another academic stated:

"We use both assignments and formal end of semester examinations to assess students..."

7.6.3 Catchments and Target Groups

Middlesex University currently has nearly thirty one thousand (31, 000) students, including students on collaborative programmes in and outside the United Kingdom (QAA, 2005) (HESA statistics puts the total numbers in UK at 25, 125). Now a 'mainstream' university and once described as a regional university, a good percentage of the student population comes from the local north London area (about 25 percent), and about 54 percent from London as a whole. The level of enrolment of international students stands at about 6 percent for Europe and up to 20 percent from other countries (HESA, 2005). Despite the fact that majority of its students are from disadvantaged or working class backgrounds, a respondent from the Business School said,

"...students in this school come from diverse backgrounds in terms of social class, ethnicity and nationality; we have many international students".

In its present strategic statement, the University aims to become a global university serving a diverse range of students from the local, national and international domain. However, Middlesex has not always able to admit its total quota of home students through the normal Universities and Colleges Admission Service (UCAS) process, but augment it with the 'clearing' system. A respondent stated:

"...admittedly, meeting our annual admission quota has become a major problem but we are confidently dealing with it; we use a clearing system, a period of time is set aside, usually one week, to allow prospective students to contact the university directly for admission, provided they gain results that are within the University's minimum requirements."

7.6.4 Criteria for Evaluating Programmes

Although different modules use different methods of assessing students work, there are generally common criteria used in determining the quality of learning and teaching of modules or programmes, with some few exceptions in work-based learning. One of the main criteria used to determine the quality is the Annual Monitoring Process, which is currently being reviewed. This process takes the data and statistics of the number of students who passed, progressed to the next stage, or gain degrees in a particular module or programme, in other words the completion rate of students in a programme. The higher the number of students who pass, progressed or attain their degrees is an indication of the quality level of the module or programme; the higher these indicators the higher the quality and the lower, the lower the quality. An academic stated:

"Right, we have a number of mechanisms to do this, we have a process called 'annual monitoring process' which I think is perhaps at the heart of measuring quality and the process has changed only just this year. To describe the process as it works today, it is one which takes data and statistical information, for instance, let just say, the number of students that passed in a particular module or the number of students that gained their degrees, the number of students that actually progressed to the next stage of their degrees...so we can look at data and information and we can say here it seems there is a very successful module, here there is a less successful module".

Students' feedback is another way through which the quality of a programme is determined. At the end of every semester students are issued with questionnaires that require them to give responses on the quality of teaching involving teachers' methods, teaching resources and other related issues. This has been viewed as a very strong indicator of the quality of any programme. A respondent stated:

"...there is a whole variety of different frameworks depending upon the particular activity. So, in terms of the programmes that is very well defined by the university, in terms of particular quality standards, external examiners, feedback mechanisms, monitory report and so on...Students and partners feedback is also very important in determining the value for money of our programmes".

The use of external examiners from other universities and institutions of higher education is another way to determine quality of programmes. Examiners comments on academic programmes provide the University with information about the quality of academic programmes to be able to redevelop or restructure them. For example, a respondent in the School of Arts stated,

"...the standard of the Dance MA Choreography/MA Choreography with Performing Arts Programme was considered appropriate for qualification at the Masters level by external examiners in 2005".

Similar comments were made of the programmes such as Dip in HE Mental Health Nursing, and PGCE – Art and Design (Secondary Education) programmes.

The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) is stated by almost all respondents as one of the important external agents that are used to determine the quality of the general academic programmes in the University. Its function is to safeguard sound standards in higher education qualifications. These agents are subject experts who look at the procedures involved in programme approval, curriculum, delivery and assessment among other things. The most recent institutional audit (referred to as institutional audit in England and Northern

Ireland) of the collaborative provision offered by the University was carried out in 2005. The institutional audit outcome expressed broad confidence in the present and likely future of the academic standards of the University (QAA, 2005).

Furthermore, the rate of patronage of a particular subject reflects its quality. In this circumstance, quality may be directly equated to income generation in the sense that, although a particular module or academic programme may be well handled and appropriate teaching learning materials used, offering the students the best learning experiences, if the employability prospects of the programme is not convincing might lead to a slump in patronage; for example, one academic noted:

"...although all these mechanisms exist to evaluate the programmes and activities, the most important thing, perhaps, is the sustainability of student numbers...once student numbers keep on increasing, it is an indication of a successful programme... admittedly, we are under enormous pressure to generate more funds from our activities"

Other 'indirect' means through which the quality of learning and teaching is determined shown in the data is the promotion of teaching staff. Staff members who apply for promotion will usually need to present a portfolio of their work, among other things are research activeness and successful delivery of modules, to support their application. In the process of this, not only is the quality of the teacher's work assessed, but the quality of the programmes and/or modules he/she is in-charge of when considered from the point of quality of learning and teaching. In relation to this form of evaluation, a respondent commented:

"...the University is reluctant to take in high quality lecturers, I mean those with PhDs, they hang unnecessarily on experience to the detriment of qualification...many of the lecturers in this school are just recruited from FECs [further education colleges] and this has a negative effect on the school standing in terms of quality...at 'X University' where I worked for six years, they take the qualifications of their academic staff very serious; that is why it has a good standing now."

At the National Centre for Work Based Learning and Partnership (NCWBLP) the method of determining the quality of the programmes varies. In project-based or collaborative-based programmes, the quality of the programme is determined by not only the recognition of prior learning experiences but also the extent to which the programme is successful in solving the practical problem on which the programme was designed.

Apart from the factors above, recognition by important stakeholders in higher education in the United Kingdom also confirms the quality of teaching and learning in institutions. Two areas of Middlesex University have been recognised by the Higher Education Funding Council of England as Centres of Excellence for Teaching and Learning. In relation to this, an academic noted:

"Apart from those I have mentioned, our recognition as a centre of excellence in teaching and learning in mental health and social work is an indication of the quality of work we do here".

In the University, the two areas that have this recognition are Work Based Learning and Mental Health and Social Work. Recognition is usually conferred after an extensive assessment of teaching and learning activities and resources that supports them.

In recent times, the rate at which graduates from the University gain employment, set up businesses or perform extraordinarily in later working lives has been used as a means to evaluate the quality of its programmes and courses. The UK Government 'Destination Survey' is an example of such means of evaluation. Middlesex and its partners take this seriously and have in their own way conducted independent surveys to highlight this. One example of this is the Middlesex Alumni Employability and Lifestyle Survey 2006. This is an independent survey (publicity material?) which indicates that the vast majority of its graduates are successful in their chosen field and would choose Middlesex as their university (Middlesex World, 2006a).

7.7 RERESEARCH ACTIVITY

As one of the mainstream universities (post-1992), Middlesex is often viewed as a teaching university in which a greater part of its activities is centred on teaching and learning, especially when compared with research-led universities such as Oxford and Cambridge. At the moment, the time spent on research by academic staff is estimated to be less than a fifth (20%), for example, a research director said:

"If we were to guess a figure for the school staff involvement in research as a whole is probably in the region of one sixth (1/6), say 15 to 16 percent, somewhere around that".

However, recent policy debates and repositioning activities within the University indicate some increased emphasis on research and scholarship, for instance an academic at Middlesex University Research Office (more discussion on this office is carried out later in this chapter) said:

"...as part of the University policy to strengthen and expand on its research activities, this office was set up to work with academics..."

7.7.1 Mission

Research and scholarship is one of the activities highlighted in the Universities strategic statement, when it states in part, the University will provide

"...challenging academic programmes underpinned by innovative research and scholarship and professional practice" (Middlesex University, 2005a).

It sees the delivery of excellence in research, scholarship and professional practice as its priority areas, besides teaching and learning. The research and scholarship mission of the University places a strong emphasis upon making research relevant not only to the curriculum but also linking research, scholarship and professional practice to business and public sector organisations. Referring to the University's research policy, a senior academic said:

"Our plan is, as stated clearly here [pointing to university strategic document], that from the period 2005/06 academic year to 2009/10 academic year, we would developed at least three collaborative centres of research, increased the number of research students, both MPhil/PhD and MProf/Dprof, to 1300, and achieve a minimum of five million pounds per annum external research income...".

The University's policy has been reiterated by Directors of Research in the various schools but decry the lack of active involvement in research by some staff members due to their heavy teaching loads. As a way to achieve this mission, the university has established an office: the Middlesex University Research Office (MURO). According to the Director,

"MURO [Middlesex University Research Office] is charged with the responsibility of supporting, encouraging, coordinating and err recording all research and research-student related activities across the University; it offers information and advice on funding opportunities, organises training on research and related activities and works towards raising the research profile of the University.".

At the school level, research activity is headed by the Director of Research and Postgraduate Studies (DRPS) who manages and oversees all research activities and reports to the Assistant Vice-Chancellor and Director, Research.

7.7.2 Types of Research

Research is a growing area of activity at Middlesex. According to a respondent

"Research in this University is classified into five main categories: one category is research that involves theoretical work to acquire knowledge without any specific application in mind, this is known as basic research; the second category is strategic research, research intended to generate new knowledge with potentials for application; the third is applied research...research intended to develop existing knowledge towards specific practical objectives; there is also creative work, a type of research that concerns with or related to inventions and generation of ideas, and finally scholarship, work intended to extend the boundaries of knowledge and understanding".

Research is viewed from two dimensions: staff research and student research. Staff research could be individual members directed, schools directed, university directed or research centres directed. The University policy acknowledges the differences that exist in the nature of research in the various schools and disciplines. A respondent stated:

"There are about three levels of research; first of all there is an overall direction from the University and then there is the school level...school plan, where the school evolves from the researchers' experiences, what it would be doing over the next, say two, four or five years. Then there is a sort of research centres, groups or academic groups and the more specialised groups decide on the kind of research or research interest they can best pursue. Perhaps a fourth level could be students' research, postgraduate research students like you...".

Middlesex has no tight rules regarding the type of research conducted by staff and students; however, the type of research conducted depends on several factors: interests of individuals, research centres, organisation, etc. There are also four identified types of people involved in research: research active staff, contract researchers, lecturers/researchers and research students. At the staff level, individual members decide on the type of research and the area to research. However, most staff interviewed indicated that they usually research in their areas of discipline more especially linked to the teaching curriculum, for example an academic said:

"Well, I would not say that we get instruction concerning the type of research we do or want to do, particularly in this school...the few research projects I have worked on are related to business law, which is the area I teach and my interest area as well...generally speaking we do it our own way".

Schools' research centres or individual members usually win consultancy and project contracts, in this particular instance, the research agenda is usually dictated by the client or in consultation with the University. This is a growing area especially in research centres such as the Flood Hazard Research Centre (FHRC) in the School of Health and Social Sciences, which is currently working on over eight commissioned projects; The Centre for Enterprise and Economic Development Research (CEEDR) located in the Business School has also been at the forefront in research activities. Contract researchers are normally contracted in to work on these projects for a limited amount of time. Generally, many respondents express some dissatisfaction or caution about the University's level of engagement in contract research; a respondent in the School of Computing Science said:

"...not as much as I would like...actually, winning research contracts from local businesses is quite hard work; and on the whole, staff are very hard pressed; most of them in the teaching side, their teaching commitments are very heavy and it's quite difficult, then, for them to find the time for research let alone find extra time to try to go out for contract research."

Student research also contributes significantly to research in the University, which is why there is an emphasis on increasing the number of research students over the next five years. At the student level, research is generally basic research or academic oriented especially within the MPhil/PhD programmes. In the MProf and DProf programmes, which is normally studied through work based learning; research is applied and practically geared towards addressing issues at the work place, as stated by an academic at the NCWBLP describes: "real world, real time research". Within this level, the individual student, sometimes in consultation with the relevant school, usually determines the area and topic of research. However, in some cases where research students are admitted into funded projects such as the current European Union sponsored EMILIA project in the School of Lifelong Learning and Education, they are expected to research within the remit of the project. Collaborative studies in work based learning also require some measure of consultation between the collaborative organisations and the University.

Despite involvement in research activities by staff, active involvement in research on the whole is insignificant; with some staff involved in no kind of research activity at all. As stated above, this situation is acknowledged to be caused by heavy teaching commitments or loads that have taken over much of the time of the academic staff. However, the number of full-time research staff in the university has reduced over the last five years, a Director of Research noted:

"...the contracts of most academic staff require them to teach and involve in some research, so many of the academic staff are required to conduct some research, but the reality is that the teaching component is overwhelming, so, as far as I know we do not have a single full time research-only-staff in this school. One of the areas I am working to improve is to get at least a full time researcher..."

7.7.3 Target/Catchments Areas

As stated earlier in this chapter, the University was initially positioned as a regional university hence its applied research activities were directed at its local communities especially, the London boroughs and public organisations, particularly those of North London such as Enfield, Barnet and Haringey, although it had some European Community funded projects. With its current dispensation with an international focus, its research focus is opened to all research opportunities around the world. Notwithstanding this, engagement in research with the local community (North London and London local councils, public sector organisations, business etc) is still extensive and viable. A respondent stated:

"Our research cuts across wide areas because of the subject mix of the School...we do research for local councils and public sector organisations; for example we are currently working on several NHS [National Health Services] and Enfield council research projects."

According to the Director of Research in the School of Computer Science,

"...the school currently works on over ten projects under the London Development Agency's research projects initiated by the Mayor of London to support small business, err through collaborations with universities."

Similarly, the School of Lifelong Learning and Education (now merged with the School of Arts as of August 2006) has also been involved in conducting some educational related research projects with Barnet and Enfield councils. In a more general sense, research resulting in publications such as in peer review journals or as books could have an extensive or wider audience. Some academics in the University hold the view that although contract or commissioned research carried out by the University may be targeted, in most cases, at relevant communities, peer review publications by staff tend to target a wide diverse audience at all levels: local, regional, national and international.

Catchments areas of research are also inextricably linked to targeted areas for research students or the recruitment areas of research students, since research results by these students form part of the University's research portfolio. According to statistics for the academic year 2003/04, out of 6135 postgraduate students, 2750 came from overseas

(European Union and non-European Union) indicating that close to 45 percent of research students are recruited from overseas.

Apart from the institutional research activities, some members of staff involved in private research activities under the umbrella of the University, but will have to give some percentage of the income of the research to the University. This type of research is usually applied.

7.7.4 Evaluation of Research

The University uses several interrelated criterion to determine the progress of its research, much of which is influenced by current tensions on higher education institutions discussed earlier in chapter four. The first and the most important criteria is the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), according to a respondent:

"I think the major means of evaluating our research is the RAE; almost everyone's attention is directed towards the 2008 assessment...though many academics have the feeling that the University authorities are not enthusiastic about it all".

This exercise is a peer-review one with an objective of identifying higher education institutions in the UK with top quality research to enable funding bodies to distribute research funds; institutions with the best research receive a large allocation of the research funds available. A senior academic said:

"In the last RAE, this University had moderate scores, having the best ratings, 5[29] rating in only two areas; History of Art, Architecture and Design and then Philosophy, and the lowest rating of 2 rating in Education."

Much of the University's energy in research has been directed towards the 2008 RAE, which probably stands to be the last assessment exercise in this current form. While some academics see a good performance in the RAE as a sign of excellence in the University's

[29] Ratings ranged from 1 to 5* (lowest to highest) based on the extent to which research work is judged to reach a level of excellence nationally or internationally.

research, others are sceptical about the RAE criteria for evaluating research, which they claim favours some institutions more than others. A respondent stated:

"If we come back to any kind of measure of the broad quality of research, I think the only existing metric is the RAE, it is the most effective so far...unfortunately many of the subjects in this School are not rated high"

However, another noted:

"...the RAE is just one, I would say, a partial means of evaluating research...the only way we can measure it would be to say over a period of time the proportion of our research work which was directly aimed at industry or local government or the community"

Another said:

"The RAE is one of the biggest 'formation?[30]' of how research is now done, and that is very controversial because most people think the RAE, the next one in 2008, narrows down the kind of research that is to be done, because that sets the agenda. And in a university like this, which is creating new kinds of research finds it very hard sometimes to get those kind of research recognised, taking into account the multidisciplinary kinds of research"

The quality of commissioned or collaborative research is another way through which research is often evaluated; it is based on the extent to which the research results reflect the objective of the project as defined by the partner organisation. A respondent noted:

"With commissioned research, we usually adhere to the project objective and obviously, this would be the measure of the success of the project; the extent at which the research addresses issues of important to the funding body".

The outcome of research training is another criterion the University uses to evaluate its research excellence. This covers a wide spectrum of interrelated activities in the training of postgraduate research students, ranging from recruitment, type of students (part-time/full-

[30] Not sure about this word.

time) and completion rates. An increase in the number and completion rate of research students, particularly PhD students, in the university is deemed as an indication of its research strength. While the increases not only increase its research output, fee paying research students also positively affect the income of the University. In connection to this a respondent state:

"...the numbers of research students and completion rate of the students is a strong measure of our research output of a sort; I can say that this school is ahead of most of the schools in this area of evaluation"

Publications in peer reviewed journals and books are deemed another important part of determining the quality and strength of research in all schools in the University, a lecturer stated:

"The most important measure is that of good quality publications, peer reviewed publication in highly rated journals".

Although every school has strategies to increase the number of academic publications, particularly geared towards the 2008 RAE, output in this area is generally low, with academic staff concentrating more on teaching commitments. In addition, the number and quality of publications of academic staff are used for the purposes of promotions.

The recognition by public-sector Research Councils such as the Arts and Humanities Research Council (AHRC), the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC), the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC) and the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) is also used as an indication to evaluate the quality of research. These Research Councils are the main public investors in research across wide range of disciplinary and interdisciplinary areas in the UK, focusing on supporting high calibre researchers. The School of Arts was the only school that received AHRC funding in 2005. The University has also had ESRC recognition, according to a Director of Research and Postgraduate Studies,

"I would say that the recent recognition by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) of social science research programmes in the University and the allocation of funds to support MPhil/PhD studies is an example of an indication of improved quality of our research".

League tables of universities' research quality standings prepared by corporate entities or public newspapers such as those of the 'Guardian' and the Times Higher Education Supplement (THES) are also used to determine quality of research in the University, for instance a respondent acknowledged:

"...apart from those I have mentioned, there are other ways like the THES and Guardian league tables; and I can tell you that their impact on the public's view of an institution is enormous"

7.8 COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT AND ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITY

Apart from learning and teaching, and research activities, the University engages in other activities that are geared towards reaching out to the community or society for the purposes of offering some form of assistance through collaborative activities in the form of volunteering work, direct business, academic placement, research and consultancy work, validation of courses, and/or use of university facilities among other things. These are in some cases interrelated and interconnected with teaching and learning, and research activities. Middlesex University has long-standing links and relationships with its local and regional communities, which later extended to international partnerships. It is currently building on this foundation to extend its links to wide and diverse communities around the world. Students spend part of their time providing voluntary services to charities in the local communities of North London; they also serve as mentors to children in schools in the community, for example, Raynham Primary School in Edmonton Green. As stated earlier on above, members of the academic staff provide voluntary consultancy services to local organisations such as the Enfield Strategic Partnerships.

Referring again to the University's 2005/06 – 2009/10 Corporate Plan, it recognises the importance of links with business and the community and the mutual benefits such links are likely to bring. The statement places emphasis on creating that type of relationship "that will bring benefit to the University directly through financial returns or indirectly through enhancing reputation, academic standing or building relationships with key external stakeholders" (Middlesex University, 2005a).

7.8.1 Business Development Units

To achieve the objective of linking with business, the University has set up business units, headed by Directors of Business Development (DBD), in each school (except the School of Lifelong Learning and Education (SLLE) currently being merged with the School of Arts), including one for the National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership located within the SLLE. According to a DBD,

"My main duty is to help generate alternative income for the school, income outside what is received from grants and government, using resources of the school. This could be teaching related, research related or any activity in the schools that has the potentials of generating income."

Generally, such activities centre around working closely with academic staff and other people on ideas they have, Continuing Professional Development (CPD), and consultancy work among other things. Business opportunities are created through network of contacts to link with organisations to understand their interests and provide the appropriate services; working closely with staff to provide expertise to clients; working with other schools on innovative ideas that have the potentials of attracting clients, and offer consultancy work to entrepreneurs who want to develop products. Explaining the process involved in locating business activities and generating income, a respondent stated:

"...two ways or three ways really; I think we have generated a network of contacts with various organisations, companies and external networking; and we have to remember that the School of Arts is starting from a very low base and we are trying to build it incrementally; and also working with colleagues in the School of Health, we have this business development centre which organises meetings to share ideas and to build collaborative partnerships."

Main target groups are local organisations particularly local councils and businesses in the London area such as London Boroughs of Enfield, Haringey, Marks and Spencer. At present, there are growing numbers of local, national and international clients especially in Business Development Units of schools such as Health and Social Sciences and Computing Science.

One of the vibrant and active among the schools in this regards is the Business Development Unit (BDU) of the School of Health and Social Sciences. Its mission is to provide

"creative solutions for healthcare and social science clients within a commercially focussed unit, serving the United Kingdom and international markets" (School of Health and Social Sciences, 2005).

The Director of BDU emphasised,

"...apart from the strong links we have developed with the National Health Services Trust which offers a substantial amount of business dealings, we also concentrate on providing services to national and international clients. We focus on three main areas; firstly, the active promotion and marketing of consultancy work to a whole variety of the service sector including community healthcare clinics, local authorities, social work organisations errr through sales and promotions, advertising which has achieved limited success. We also develop a range of Continuing Professional Development courses involving short course aimed at credits in health and social science areas, one example is a course called Healthcare Risk and Safety Management, a certificate accredited by the Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (IOSH). Thirdly, we focus on providing conference services, involving planning, organising and running conferences...our current clients include Sainsbury Centre for Mental Health, The Joseph Rowntree Trust, The Environment Agency, The European Commission, The Mauritius Ministry of Health and Quality of Life, Ministry of Health, Kenya, and Beijing University, China."

The activities of the Business Development Units in the University are linked to teaching and research in many respects; for instance, CPD courses are learning-teaching centred which in most cases the teaching staff are involved to deliver within the provisions of contracts, although outside the conventional or mainstream university academic modules.

Research contracts agreed by the business centres or units are usually an outcome of join and collaborative activities of the units and the research active staff of the schools concerned. The National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership (NCWBLP) also involves in similar activities involving contract research activities defined within a learning environment (MProf and DProf) where clients (their employees) take centre stage in the research and obtain certification after a successful process and outcome.

7.8.2 Business Enterprises

Apart from the Business Development Units, the University is involved in other outreach activities such as the establishment of subsidiary companies to perform some specific business activities with society, and the use of university facilities for business purposes such as catering and conference services. Middlesex University Ventures Limited (MUV) is one of the subsidiary companies of the University, which is focused on increasing the rate at which funds from commercial sources flow into the University. According to a respondent at MUV

"Middlesex University Ventures explores strategic ways through which knowledge-based ideas in the University might be harnessed to create wealth. To achieve this, we involve creating spin-off companies within the University's resources; identifying business opportunities and availing such opportunities to staff; licensing intellectual property rights to businesses among other things. To illustrate what I am saying, we have recently created the Middlesex Innovation Hub under a European Regional Development Plan project to link businesses with the academics of the University. The MIH offers services gears towards helping businesses to raise performances in company, product, management and staff through consultancy, research, professional development and people development".

The main aim of the Hub is to provide an easy channel for businesses to contact the University – it does not seek to take over existing contacts" (Middlesex World, 2006b).

The Middlesex University Press Limited (MUP) is another subsidiary company, which existed since 1993. Its main activity is to support authors to publish books. It also involves in business activities such as developing teaching and learning materials and organising and delivering conferences and workshops. Its activities are not only limited to the University's academic community but to the national and international public and private sectors, publishing on wide and diverse academic and research areas such as education, philosophy, health, housing and environment and international relations.

The Middlesex University Teaching Resources (MUTR) is the University's design and technology company that is specialised in designing and manufacturing of materials and tools to support teaching and learning in design and technology and other educational areas. They currently hold contracts with big United Kingdom retail companies such as Marks and Spenser, WH Smith, Maplin, the Conran Shop and the Natural World, as well as supply science kits to educational institutions in and outside the United Kingdom. Its turnover this year is projected at £2m (Middlesex World, 2005).

7.8.3 Initiatives

Apart from its subsidiary companies, Middlesex has established the Institute for Community Development and Learning, located within the School for Health and Social Sciences, with an objective of promoting links between its local and regional communities. This institute organises and coordinates volunteering activities that create opportunities for students to learn through community-based activities while at the same time offering services to the communities. It also offers training in citizenship and leadership to staff, students and local organisations, as well as conduct research and consultancy in a wide range of related areas.

Middlesex University considers productive collaborations with other higher education institutions and Further Education Colleges (FEs) as an important component of its efforts to achieve its mission objectives. It has collaborative activities with universities in the United Kingdom as well as other foreign ones including universities in Australia, Kenya, and the United States. As at January 2005, the University had collaborative agreements with over 70 national and international further education institutions and organisations to validate over 200 programmes run in those institutions and organisations. In the 2005 Financial Statement, validation fees from these colleges represented about two percent of the total income of the University.

7.8.4 Evaluation of Community Engagement and Entrepreneurial Activities

As far as the commercial-oriented activities are concerned, the indicators used to evaluate such activities is broadly based on the extent to which they are designed or structured to meet the needs and expectations of 'clients', and the extent to which services are expanded to more clients. For instance, the Business Development Units and the subsidiary companies are evaluated based on their ability to identify and create business opportunities suitable for the human and material resources available, take advantage of those opportunities through strategic planning and implementation, and increasing the number of clients and invariably increasing income in a cost effective manner. A respondent noted:

"We have financial targets, we also have other targets for example increasing the amount of CPD by certain percentage year on year, consultancy which is a weaker area of this school, well potentially very strong, but in terms of activity we have targets for that. Other targets are the number of overseas partners, we have a financial target for, and money brought in from overseas partners and business. In addition to that we have sort of an annual plan and with objectives..."

Another respondent said:

"Money is one way of measuring, and the important one; the other of course is the added value that this can bring, this includes the level of our partners' satisfaction with our work and the improvement we have incrementally made".

In summary, the evaluation of community engagement and entrepreneurial activities is largely centred on the economic activities: increased partnership, income and level of partner satisfaction, against very little mention of voluntary work and other non profit making activities.

7.9 RESOURCES

Resources in this research refer to human resources (academics, researchers, and 'entrepreneurial scientist'), material resources (Infrastructure e.g. laboratories and classrooms, equipment e.g. computers and ICT), and financial resources. Middlesex has over 1100 in its workforce and up to 45 percent of them are academic staff. Evidence suggests that the university human resource base may be to some extent sufficient; this is illustrated by a recent 'compulsory redundancy' exercise that led to cutting down the number of staff in the university. However, it is uncertain whether this was necessarily a sign of over resource or just one of a cost effective strategy to offset a financial crisis to the detriment of efficiency. Viewed from the premises that most lecturers interviewed highlighted the overwhelming teaching load on them and the feeling that more lecturers need to be recruited suggests that the University probably requires more academic staff and the voluntary redundancy interpreted as a financial strategy rather than too many academics. On material resources, the University infrastructure base is undergoing radical changes that include closing down a number of its campuses and expanding others to reduce costs of operation. It is currently located within four campuses, some hospitals and international campus at Dubai. General infrastructure - Lecture rooms, ICT equipment and services, and laboratories are said to be well within satisfactory parameters, according to a respondent:

"I think resources to support our work are fairly adequate, we do not need sophisticated materials to work; basic resources as space, computers and so on I would say are adequate"

However other respondents especially in Trent Park and Hendon Campuses expressed serious concerns about the limited lecture rooms and the pressure on them due to closure of some of the campuses, for instance, an academic stated:

"We presently face an acute problem of lecture rooms because of the closure of the Tottenham Campus; one of our modules is yet to be allocated a room for lectures..."

A respondent at the School of Computing Science noted:

"...although we understand new computers would be supply, it is really a shame that academics in a full computer school are still using this type of computers [pointing at a supposedly old model computer]".

Similarly, a director of business development commented on the poor ICT network to enhance their activities with partners and students abroad, particularly those networks to support distance learning activities. However, recent major infrastructural development includes the Shepherd Library, renovation of some structures in Hendon and Trent Park campuses which some senior academics see as a major improvement to the University's infrastructural base.

Financial issues seem to be fundamental in the everyday matter of the University, with almost every respondent expressing the financial resource limitation. Like most university institutions in the UK, its financial position is a challenging one. The University is under pressure to generate funds to augment the decreasing funding council grants. According to its 2005 financial statement, the University's 'funding council grants fell by a further 9%' due to the reductions in its home student recruitments in the previous years (Middlesex University, 2005b). Hence there are clear signals of financial constraints; most respondents highlighted this precarious financial situation; commenting on the financial situation of the University, an academic stated:

"...no, err in terms of money, the University always talk of shortage of funds; all universities are operating at all near destitute, err and so far or till now, if I am right, nobody can be sure about the security of his job ... in other words you don't get enough funding for anything"

Its main sources of funding are tuition fees and education contracts and funding council grants, which provide 41 and 40 percent respectively. Community engagement and entrepreneurial activities accounts for about 16 percent of income (Middlesex University, 2005b). Because of this, university management have challenged academic staff to make their activities financially rewarding to the University; whether this is working or not is expected to be seen in its next year's financial statement.

7.10 INTERPRETION

What does the above information tell about the nature and place of service in the academic life of Middlesex University? To be able to have a valid interpretation of this, it might be essential to first of all have a clear understanding of the meaning of the concept of 'service' in the context of Middlesex University. The responses from academics showed their unfamiliarity with the concept; this may be attributed to the very little use of the concept in university official policy documents and among academics within the context of seeing it as the core policy jargon (as would be seen in the case of the University of Development Studies in the next chapter), for example terms or phrases such as 'meeting the needs', 'provide', 'interaction with business', 'delivery of' and 'increasing student numbers' are used to articulate its relationship with its external 'community'. Despite this, the terms or phrases connote the University's intention to satisfy needs of, to perform functions that are directed to an external entity, for example students and partners. This brings to the fore the contextual dynamics of the use of the concept. Hence, although the concept service is not used directly, different expressions such as voluntary work by the university community to its immediate community, and using academic programmes to meet the needs of individuals and organisations among other things provide the framework to understand the meaning of service as tailoring its core activities towards meeting the needs of students, state institutions, industry and corporate organisation, as can be understood from statements quoted earlier such as:

"...committed to meeting the needs and ambitions of a culturally and internationally diverse range of students by providing challenging academic programmes underpinned by innovative research, scholarship and professional practice." and

"...we work towards becoming a leading centre in the delivery of challenging business management and allied programmes to diverse students and clients who contribute in business and the community".

Four main service beneficiaries can be identified from a survey of the data: students (home and international), government institutions and councils (for example NHS, TDA and Enfield Council), industry and corporate organisations (for example Marks and Spencer) and international government institutions (for example Mauritius Ministry of Health) and partner organisations (for example European Commission). However, the reality of the service at Middlesex is that it is centred on making money from student recruitment and working with corporate organisations rather than meeting specific needs of its community. Meeting the annual quota for recruitment of home students and maintaining their stable progression is a big guarantee for financial reward from the state; tuition fees paid by international students is high and considered as a major source of its income. Its interaction with state institutions and industry is limited; as stated in earlier sections, sources of funding are tuition fees and education contracts and funding council grants, which provide 41 and 40 percent respectively, with community engagement and entrepreneurial activities accounting for just around 16 percent. In another sense, it may be logical to argue that improved access, participation and progression in higher education for all qualified citizens of the UK as one of the important policies and needs could be used to make a case for concentration on student recruitment as a form of service to society.

To many academic staff, the core of academic life is teaching, research and administrative activities. As to what can been seen as service could be defined based on the intention and outcome of those core activities. A number of academics had the view that their jobs represented a form of service in a general sense although they were not very comfortable and unsure about the term, an example is the following response quoted earlier in this chapter:

"The term is not easily defined and it is not clear. I have never actually sat down to think about what I am doing [teaching], whether that is service or not...obviously the job we do here is a form of service to society because we train teachers for schools in this area"

Similar examples used to support their stances included the claim that almost all their activities as academics were geared directly or indirectly towards satisfying the needs of society, whether as teaching or research. The context in which the core activities were carried out places a form of obligation on them: quality assurance inspections, research assessment exercise, and partnership responsibilities (to partners such as the National Health Services (NHS) and the Training Development Agency (TDA)). Although other academics were sceptical about the use of the concept to describe their work (teaching and research), for example, an academic described it as "a postmodernists' view of the university" reflecting a narrow view, there were overall acknowledgement that their jobs have become/becoming a form of service. However, the important question that still remains unanswered is that to what extent does this stance reflects the reality of the place of service in the academic life of Middlesex University? Academics could be viewed as the heartland of the university, the importance of their opinion on any particular issue across any aspect of society cannot be over emphasised, more especially those related to their own professional activities. Despite this, their views illustrate the usual vagueness and rhetoric which are often difficult to substantiate. The views seem not to give a confirmable and stable understanding of the place of service in the academic life of the University; the claim probably could be more of analytical fruition. However, whatever underlying internal and/or external factors that may have contributed to influence this view, or which ever way it may be interpreted, their view is that the core activities of teaching and research have become directed towards the needs of society; again whether this is a reality or not in the practical sense is another issue, which will be critically analysed in Chapters Nine and Ten later.

The unfamiliarity and varied views of the concept at Middlesex also illustrates its relative contested nature and the possibility of it being viewed and discussed in a wide variety of ways influenced by contextual dynamics such as the nature and needs of a university targeted community. To strengthen the implicit and explicit understanding of service and its place in the academic life of Middlesex University may require analysis and interpretation of its policy and nature of its core activities. Turning to the policy and nature of the core activities as an indirect means of understanding the place of service in the academic life, six themes are examined; the strategic plan, teaching and learning, curriculum delivery, research, community engagement and entrepreneurial, and the nature and state of resources. How does the University's policy and operations within these areas illustrate the place of service in its academic life? Analysis is made taking cognisance of the framework of UK's perspective and policy on higher education which seem to be directed towards making the sector a tool for national economic growth.

Firstly, to talk of the community in which Middlesex operates is to think of both its physical and virtual community: local, national and international. This is reflected in its corporate strategic plan which emphasises its local and global outlook. The mission states the University's commitment "to meeting the needs and ambitions of a culturally and internationally diverse range of students by providing challenging academic programmes". This statement underscores Middlesex's perspective, a strong indication that its main direction is towards ensuring that its activities are directed towards satisfying or 'meeting the needs and ambitions' of students. The interpretation of this perspective points to the idea that the University defines itself as not only a 'provider' but a provider attentive and committed to ensuring that all its students are well satisfied with its provisions. Hence, it can be argued that while Middlesex is an institution that is involved in varied activities including teaching, research and community engagement/entrepreneurial activities, it nevertheless sees itself as a service provider. These varied activities, therefore, could be seen as 'service' in policy sense. In addition, the stress on meeting the needs and ambition of students who are the main targets demonstrates characteristics of service. However, the main issue may be the extent to which this well formulated and focused corporate plan is translated into reality.

Admittedly, the formulation and presentation of robust corporate plans is a common characteristic of most higher education institutions; they are principles (not necessarily practices) and play important role in marketing the institutions to prospective students and partners. Middlesex University's corporate plan may not be different from this; it may present a typicality of the mission statement rhetoric of the higher education landscape. However, at this stage or level it could probably be understood as the University's intentions and principles, whether as a reality or an imagination, and presents (on paper) its entire activities as service of a sort to relevant or potential clients. Hence, the corporate plan could be understood as a form of 'service thinking' because of its stress on 'clientele' satisfaction. Again, this could still be open to different interpretations (as shall be analysed in later chapters) depending on the core issues involved, for instance a study directed towards examining the quality and effectiveness of the university core activities as service could take a different dimension.

Secondly, the general university academic mission and policy, guide individual schools' entire teaching activities. Against this background, teaching and learning curricula are formulated based on the University's policy on curriculum that stipulates that curricula design, content and quality should be based on the needs, experience and expectation of the students. This therefore, directly and/or indirectly restricts teachers and relevant academic staff to take as the core, the needs of the target groups (for example students and employers – M&S) in the process of curriculum formulation, delivery and evaluation. As pointed out in quotations from respondents cited in various parts of section 7.6, the increase and sustainability of student numbers within any particular programme is used as a yardstick to measure the quality and sustainability of that particular programme. Although, teaching and learning programmes are regularly assessed by both internal and external structures to ensure that the quality is in line with the national policy on quality, the core concern of the University is to ensure that it provides high quality programmes that cater for the needs and ambitions of the students. This is reflected in a statement made by an academic (Curriculum leader)

"We are under enormous pressure to ensure that our programmes are attractive to potential students to bring in the needed funds…you are well aware of the current withdrawal of History due to its inability to recruit enough students".

This position seems to point the University's direction of teaching and learning function to service. Despite this, it is hard to measure or determine, in absolute terms, the degree to which this programmes are attractive to students apart from increased student numbers which could be influenced by other factors or variables such as student choice influence by proximity to university and relative financial opportunities (level of fees compared to other universities). Apart from this, the curricula of a number of the programmes are traditionally inherited that seem to have nothing to do with attracting students; this is reflected in this statement quoted earlier from a respondent:

"But we take our directions, I suppose from, well, historically we had certain subjects and certain things we've always taught in our school, but the most historic, if you like, is art and design…".

However, the University's clarity of what it considers success in its academic delivery or service is important in determining the reality of its service rhetoric; situating the analysis within the framework of the statement below cited in earlier sections:

"…although all these mechanisms exist to evaluate the programmes, the most important thing, perhaps, is the sustainability of student numbers…once student numbers keep on increasing, it is an indication of successful programme."

The above quote clearly shows that one of the main criteria used in determining success is based on student numbers, and the University strategies seem to be directed at this through various ways, for example the curriculum is formulated based on its (university) understanding of the economy and students needs, this is reflected in the following response from an academic:

"...a bunch of the curriculum is dictated, emmm, by our understandings of the demands, well, our understandings of things like the economy, our understandings of things like the world of work for the students."

Other strategies include the institution of scholarship schemes, and expanding its contacts with local colleges through fun fairs and floats to canvas for final year students. Again, the fact that access to and participation in higher education is a strong national policy which is especially relevant to the working class context of Middlesex University makes its (Middlesex) strive to increase student numbers particularly a service not only to students but to the nation.

Furthermore, although the curricula of a number of programmes such as art and design are traditionally inherited, their continuous existence in the University academic programmes is based on evidence that their recruitment levels are encouraging and sustainable; this could be understood from the fate suffered by History when it failed to recruit enough students.

Thirdly, the delivery aspect of the curriculum presents different scenarios, particularly in most full-time undergraduate programmes. Although some practical or vocational-oriented programmes such as Product Design and Engineering (Life Projects) involve processes geared towards solving specific design problems, the teaching/learning process in most programmes involve the conventional lecture and seminar methods, where curriculum delivery methods do not necessarily reflect solutions of specific problems of the student (though assignments are. This process sits more or less within the conventional practice where students go through a predefined bulk of knowledge after which they are tested and assessed. A module such as 'Introduction to Philosophy' for undergraduate year one covers areas such as Plato's *Republic*, which can not be linked immediately to serve a particular market interest, apart from the individual student's interest. Based on the University's strong service policy focus, it is envisaged that the policy would be reflected at the delivery stage where it will develop innovative ways of delivering programmes away from the conventional lecture method. This would ensure that delivery is practical, contextual and reflects the strong orientation to meeting the needs of its partners. Nevertheless, most programmes run by schools such as the SLLE (NCWBLP) and SHSS are structured to serve specific needs of the student, partners and the market. Most programmes include information on job prospects upon completion as a way of enticing potential students and reassuring them of the value for money. This, therefore, suggest teaching and learning activities as a form of service.

Fourthly, while data presented on research at Middlesex give a broader outlook, the underlying guideline directing research is the 2008 RAE. Although the teaching component of academics work outweighs that of research, the University is developing its research portfolio across all its schools and across disciplines with an important objective of generating income from research; this could be understood from the opening of the Middlesex University Research Office (MURO) with the responsibility of supporting and encouraging academics' and students' research. The following quote from the data illustrates the research aims:

"Our plan is, as stated clearly here [pointing to university strategic document], is that from the period 2005/06 academic year to 2009/10 academic year, we would developed at least three collaborative centres of research, increased the number of research students, both MPhil/PhD and MProf/Dprof, to 1300, and achieve a minimum of five million pounds per annum external research income..."

Research conducted by individual academic staff is varied based on interest and discipline; project research which are usually collaborative and directed by sponsors or partners are most often carried out in school research centres or as individual projects. Another component of research is research students' work or projects that academic staff considered as not only an important aspect of the University's research portfolio but a source of funding especially from international students. The underlying determinant of quality and success of these varied research activities explicate the interpretation of the place of service in relations to research. Research commissioned by Middlesex local boroughs or other partners are usually conducted within the objectives of the projects to guarantee the acquisition of future projects from the partners; this is reflected in the following quote from a respondent:

"With commissioned research, we usually adhere to the project objective and obviously, this would be the measure of the success of the project; the extent at which the research addresses issues of important to the funding body".

Research in this dimension is service. The number of staff publications that include books, chapters of books, and articles in refereed or recognised journals are also indicators used to determine staff research quality and the quality of research of the University as a whole.

These publications are important in the RAE and university league tables. The recruitment and completion rate of research students is another measure used to determine quality of research; enrolment level of research student also influences the university income. The mode of determining quality of commissioned research and training of research students could be seen as an indication of service to partners and students, and again makes research a component of service of the university.

The publications determinant is complex and indirect; while individual research and publications may usually involve basic research, others may involve applied, yet both stand the chance of scoring points in the RAE. In this circumstance, basic research may not involve direct service because it is not conducted in the context of application or directed by an external partner for its own interest. However, in considering the overall institutional objective of entering specific research publications for the RAE, as well as the recruitment of researchers of extensive publications (both basic and applied) and national recognition, a different interpretation could be made. Given that the basis for the RAE is to help in the allocation of research funds to universities, with the best practice allocated the more funds, the use of such publications cannot be termed as interest-free, but geared towards a particular interest: the interest of the RAE. Hence, to some extent research is directed towards serving a particular interest rather than for its own sake.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that the major part of research activities in the University is centred on student research (MPhil and PhD) and academic staff publications; research conducted in the context of application is patchy across schools but concentrated in Schools and Centres such as Health and Social Sciences, National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership (NCWBLP), the Centre for Enterprise and Economic Development Research (CEEDR) and the Flood Hazard Centre (FHC). So, thinking in terms of research that directly meets the needs of external entities (conducted in the context of application) to determine the extent of its service, research at Middlesex University could be seen as 'slightly' service oriented. However, if service is linked to the provision of research experiences to students in exchange for money of any form or economic gains, then its research could arguable be service oriented due to the increasing number of its research students. The overall argument is based on the extent to which entities of the perceived community of the University influences its academic activities for their own interests or needs.

Fifthly, community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are usually defined by some as the service component of universities. However, this notion seems to give some limited scope to the concept. At Middlesex, community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are seen as a type of relationship with the community that directly or indirectly offer some benefits to community as well as its corporate interest. This is reflected in the University's corporate plan when it states (quoted earlier):

"...that will bring benefit to the University directly through financial returns or indirectly through enhancing reputation, academic standing or building relationships with key external stakeholders" (Middlesex University, 2005a).

Such activities are not carried out in isolation from the mainstream academic activities but directly or indirectly operates as a portal through which the academic and for that matter knowledge-based services are practically 'reached out' to the society. Taking the case of Business Development Units (BDUs), these units either locate appropriate opportunities in the community which are then related to the academia to take advantage of or sell out the expertise and ideas in their domains to potential interested clients; an example is a quote from a Director of Business Development when he states:

"...generate alternative income for the school, income outside what is received from grants and government, using resources of the school. This could be teaching related, research related or any activity in the schools that has the potentials of generating income."

Similarly, the subsidiary companies are knowledge-based companies whose activities are directly and indirectly link with the academic life of the university. Students' placements and other 'service learning' activities are as well directly related to academic activities that may carry dual benefits for the University and its partner communities and/or organisations. In other words, community engagement and entrepreneurial activities and academic activities are an interrelated whole whose outcome is service to the relevant community or society. Hence, this demonstrates the place of service in the university as a broad concept that covers all the core activities.

Lastly, the importance of resources in achieving a particular policy or delivery objective cannot be overemphasised. The resource-base and its nature may to some extend determine a university's intention and orientations or whether its core activities of teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities together constitute service or not. As the University resource-base is made up of human, financial and material resources, an analysis of each of them could unveil the dimension of its core activities. On human resources, lecturers constitute the majority of the academics and their complained of overload with teaching commitments to the detriment of other academic work such as research could negatively impact the extent to which the core activities reflect the needs of the students and partners, especially on quality (expectation). The financial constraints stated by most of the respondents (as quoted in earlier sections) could also explain against the effectiveness of the University delivery of the core activities towards meeting the needs of its student and partners as highlighted in the university corporate plan and in the individual Schools' policies. These could be used to argue that the core activities of the University are just rhetoric or what could be called 'window dressing', constituting isolated activities that do not reflect service. However, if the nature of the human resources are analysed for example, in terms of the creation of offices such as the Directors of Business Development whose duties are to create business opportunities for academics in their respective Schools, then it could be argued that they illustrate the service function of the University. Furthermore, the spatial resources such as its campuses and infrastructure could be analysed to offer some ideas about the service nature or otherwise of the core activities; for instance, the opening of centres and campuses in strategic places especially in foreign countries such as in Dubai demonstrates the University's practical implementation of its policy to extend its services to clients wherever they might be. In these campuses, the same core activities are carried out in the spirit of serving the needs of students and partners.

Notwithstanding this, the strategic choice and positioning of resources could be explained by other factors such as cost and other related issues, the case of opening campuses in foreign countries is to increase income to the University through expansion of its services. By this, it can be argued that the strategic positioning of the Dubai campus directly indicates that the university core activities are service; whether, teaching, research or the sponsorship of projects in the catchments areas from the university accounts. The upgrading of ICT support equipment such as computers, online networking and internet resources have the potentials of enhancing distance learning aimed at reaching out to both home and international students and clients.

Reflecting through the above discussion, varied dimensions of interpretation of the concept of service may be identified; these are direct/indirect, public/private, rhetoric/non-rhetoric and western/non-western dimensions. Detailed discussion of these varied interpretations from both cases (Middlesex and UDS) will be carried out in Chapter Nine.

7.11 CONCLUSION

As a 'non-traditional' university located in a more developed nation like the United Kingdom, Middlesex's nature and activities are reflected within this context. Its policies, structure and mode of delivery is located within this; it aspires to become an international university, ensuring that its activities are linked to the varied needs of its diverse community (national and international). The nature of its core activities may be interpreted as service. The United Kingdom's policy of improving access to and widening participation in higher education of appropriate age groups and social classes stand as an important factor to the service dimension of Middlesex's teaching. The use also of universities' research portfolios (particularly its relation to industry) to determine the level of research funding to offer them has influenced the University to create structures to support academics to partner their research with industry. Notwithstanding this, the service delivery is varied and has wide dimensions of interpretation (direct/indirect, public/private, rhetoric/non-rhetoric and western/non-western dimensions); it is viewed much more within the parameters of student recruitments and commercialised engagement with partner organisations. There could also be issues regarding how its core activities reflect the corporate plan, as many of its teaching and research programmes are delivered within the conventional method of lecturing and seminars that seem not to reflect the rigour of the plan. Despite this, the main criteria used to evaluate its performances are mainly anchored on student recruitment and retention, and total annual income.

Within this framework, the University's activities may be placed under the political philosophy of higher education underpinned by the idea that knowledge should be seen as a means to solve problems of the complex society but not as an object to be pursued for its own sake. Despite the fact that the delivery process of some of its programmes reflect the epistemological view of knowledge, its overall institutional policy underscore the need for knowledge to reflect the needs and aspirations of its students and partners. Against this background, what implications do the service nature of Middlesex University mode of delivery has on its autonomy as a university, academic freedom and critical thinking? These and related issues would be discussed in chapter ten and suggested conceptual model presented as part of the findings of this research.

CHAPTER 8:

UNDERSTANDING AND INTERPRETING POLICIES AND PRACTICES GUIDING CORE ACTIVITIES AT UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and interpret the data from the University for Development Studies (UDS) generated through documents, interviews and artefacts. It is the micro-level data that covers an overview of the history of the UDS, its structure and organisation, and academics notion of the concept of services (direct approach). This is followed by a thematic presentation of data (indirect approach) and interpretation of the data to understand the place of service in the University.

8.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF UDS

The history of the University for Development Studies is inextricably linked to the development of higher education in Northern Ghana. Until the mid 1980s, the number of university graduates who hailed from Northern Ghana was very low as compared to the south (Bening, 1990). The first thought of opening a university in Northern Ghana, then Northern Territory, was by a Dr Ansah Koi during a debate in the Legislative Assembly (LA) in 1953 based on two concerns: the need for advancement in education to enlighten the people to help safeguard the boundaries of the territory from French colonies at its northern, eastern and western borders; and a way of making the area less dependent on the south for direction. In another instance during the LA debate, another suggestion was made to open a college of technology in the north; it was again rejected on the grounds that the then Kumasi College of Technology (now Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology) was enough to serve the technology education needs of the country. Several other futile attempts were made in the period between 1953 and 1970s.

The first initiative made by central government towards opening a university in the north was by the ruling National Redemption Council (NRC) in 1972. The Council tasked the then National Council for Higher Education (NCHE), responsible for university education, to consider the viability of opening an Agricultural University in the north. Even though reports from the NCHE did not favour the proposal, the government decided in 1976 to open one due to the need, pressure and strong arguments put forward by some so-called 'enlightened' natives from the north. Discussion on this died out due to the change of government in 1978. However, efforts continued through hard times and different governments until in the late 80s and early 90s when there was a clear need, coupled with a strong commitment on the then government, to open a university in the north (Bening, 2005). However, the initial emphasis on a University in the North being an agricultural one gave way to a one that will be development-oriented. Despite strong arguments against the proposition by some sections of the academia in the old universities especially, and the sheer lack of basic resources to begin with, the university was established in 1992 by PNDC Law 279, and started academic work in the following year. The establishment of the UDS marked the first university in northern Ghana, and 44 years after the first university was opened in the south and 35 clear years after the nation gained independence. The legal instrument that established the University expressed in no uncertain terms the University's orientation to the provision of higher education and integrating the worlds of academic and community.

Despite the length of time and difficulties associated with the establishment of a university in Northern Ghana, the University for Development Studies occupies a unique position in the development of higher education in Ghana for several reasons.

- UDS represents a new perspective and philosophy in the policy and delivery of higher education in Ghana due to its orientation to rural development through community-based, problem-centred and practical-oriented focus. University policy and delivery in Ghana has always, consciously or unconsciously, tended towards producing individuals fit to take white collar-jobs in the public sector despite a rhetoric of policy objectives aiming at producing individuals fit to contribute to the entire development of the country.
- The law that established the University stipulates it a multi-campus one, geographically located in rural Northern Ghana. This is in contrast to the traditional style single-campus universities located in urban/metropolitan areas (The earliest public universities are University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology and

University of Cape Coast located in metropolitan cities of Legon-Accra; Kumasi and Cape Coast respectively. The campuses of the UDS are located in Kintampo, Navrongo, Nyankpala, Tamale and Wa; a combination of rural, sub-urban, and urban locations.

- A unique access policy aimed at creating equity and gender balance in the access to higher education (this is elaborated in later sections of this chapter).

Apart from the above, unlike the other universities in the country which started as university colleges and later upgraded to full universities, the UDS was established as a full fledged university. Its initially locations and infrastructure were acquired through the closing down or relocating of some relevant existing post-secondary professional training institutions such as the Nyankpala Agricultural College, and other structures that were initially designed for other purposes. However, it is important to note that the UDS shares a wide range of commonalities with the existing older higher education institutions in respect of structure, funding sources and general administrative activities. The UDS orientation is similar to the "Land Grant Universities in the USA, the Technical Universities in Germany and the Agricultural Universities of Denmark, Mac Master University in Canada and the Network of Community-oriented Educational Institutions for Health Sciences in the University of Limburg, Maastricht, Nertherlands" (Bening, 2005: 86) in the developed world. The *Institut du Development Rural*, an institute under the University of Ouagadougou in Burkina Faso, West Africa is a typical example in the developing world of an institution with similar perspectives. According to Crossman and Devisch (1999: 39), the University for Development Studies "probably has the honourable distinction of being the first university in Africa to devote its entire curriculum to national development aims, at least in intent". In sum, the University for Development Studies is distinguished by the fact that it is created to serve Northern Ghana where rural poverty, access environmental degradation and low access to education are prevalent.

8.3 STRUCTURE AND ORGANISATION

Like the other universities in Ghana, the UDS has a Governing Council, which is charged with law making responsibilities and an oversight responsibility of the general running of the University. The Academic Board is another important body that is responsible for all academic issues in the University and the Vice-Chancellor who is the chief executive heads it. Like Middlesex University (the UK system), the Vice-Chancellor is in charged of the day-to-day administration of UDS. Kofi Annan, the UN Secretary-General, is currently the Chancellor, a ceremonial head. There is one Pro-Vice-Chancellor who assists the Vice-Chancellor. The Registrar is the head of academic affairs and responsible for the day-to-day academic issues of the University.

The University for Development Studies currently has four academic faculties, namely Faculty of Agriculture, Faculty of Applied Sciences, Faculty of Integrated Development Studies and the School of Medicine and Health Sciences (UDS, 2004b; UDS, 2005b). The Registrar stated:

"We presently have four faculties; [pause] Integrated Development Studies, Agriculture, Medicine and Faculty of Applied Sciences based at Navrongo…the University started with three faculties and added a fourth shortly afterwards. We are considering adding a fifth… possibly business, to training in areas like small and medium scale entrepreneurial skills"

Every faculty has a Dean and an Assistant Registrar; the Dean is the head while the Assistant Registrar is responsible for the administration of academic matters. In most cases, faculties are sub-divided into departments with departmental heads; for example, according to the Dean of the Faculty of Agriculture, the faculty currently has seven departments, which include "Agronomy, Mechanisation, Animal Science and Agriculture Economics and Extension". Some distinct characteristics between the structure and organisation of Middlesex University and University for development Studies are that while Middlesex has directors in charge of research; curriculum, learning and quality (and curriculum leaders and programme leaders); and Business Development besides the dean, UDS has deans, assistant registrars and head of departments. These differences are to some extent influenced by the contextual dilemmas (resources) and institutional vision and mission.

The 2005 Vice-Chancellor's Report breaks down the University's academic portfolio into four broad areas, namely:

- Faculty of Agriculture: Economics and Extension; Agronomy, Animal Science; Horticulture; Mechanisation and Irrigation Technology; Renewable Natural Resources; and Biotechnology

- Faculty of Applied Sciences: Applied Biology; Applied Chemistry and Biochemistry; Applied Mathematical and Computer Science; Applied Physics; and Earth and Environmental Science
- Faculty of Integrated Development: Planning, Land Economy and Rural Development; Environmental and Resource Studies; Social, Political and Historical Studies; Economics and Entrepreneurial Development; and African and General Studies
- School of Medicine and Health Sciences: Anatomy; Biophysics and Physiology; Pharmacology; Molecular Medicine and Biochemistry; Ophthalmology; Community Health; Community Nutrition; Nursing and allied Health Sciences; and Surgery

8.4 NOTION OF SERVICE

To understand academics perspectives of the place of service in the university, they were asked about their view on the assumption that service is a function of the university besides teaching and learning (direct approach). In the UDS, respondents showed a high level of familiarity with the concept 'service'. This was partly because the concept is at the core of the University's focus, reflected in its crest: *Knowledge for Service*. There was a general view that service was a concept that describes or refers to all the activities of the University in which teaching, research and community outreach were at the core. The response from the Head of Department of Agricultural Mechanisation and Irrigation Technology is typical of this:

"I think, service is a broad term, which includes both teaching and research. In addition to this, we also do a lot of community service in various communities".

An assistant registrar of a faculty noted:

"The core of our [the university] existence is based on service to the local community, therefore we see all our activities as service...whether it is teaching or researching or our physical contact with the community...although we encounter opposition and problems with colleagues in other universities with our position".

Lecturers interviewed at the Faculties of Agriculture and Applied Sciences were more enthusiastic and optimistic about the idea of viewing the entire university activities as service. They all dismissed the idea that service is a function different from teaching and research. For example, a lecturer from the faculty of Agriculture (also a member of the planning team of the TTFPP) stated:

"...I did both my first and second degrees at the University of ... [in Ghana] and the courses I did reflected very little the real challenges of the times ...my dissertation was an example...So in this case it may be easy to see teaching as different from service. But this is different in this university; all the topics I teach are directly related to the situation in the rural communities and the students' project topics are based on the challenges of the community". Therefore, I do not think that the assumption that service is a function different from teaching and research is applicable in the case of this University".

To illustrate the view that all the core activities of the University constitute service, another lecturer in the same faculty explained how over the last two years their [respondent and students] interaction with the community has helped to reshape their academic activities. The respondent said:

"Our interaction with the community led to the realisation that local farmers still need some understanding of simple methods in post-harvest operations...(words unclear), particularly storage; contrary to government reports that local farmers had good knowledge of such methods...which we have added to our syllabus".

A respondent from the Faculty of Applied Sciences, having stressed on the view that all the activities of the University constitute service to the community, stated:

"...our students make significant contributions by sensitising the communities on important issues like bushfires that negatively affect their livelihoods; ...these links attest to the view that all our activities are directed towards serving the local communities"

In response to a question on how the sensitisation is made, the respondent said:

"...through demonstrating its effects on the soil, open air, wildlife and so on".

A pattern observed in the direct approach is that all senior academics (deans, head of departments and registrars) interviewed (except one) had a firm believe that all the university core activities (teaching, research and community outreach) constitute service. The responses suggested the top hierarchy's unity and view of their roles as the guardians of the course of the university. The senior academic who had a contrary view said that as far as 'she' was concerned, the question of whether service is one of functions of the university or not 'boils' down to the context and state in which the university is currently finds itself. According to 'her':

"The ****** polarisation of the university top hierarchy is threatening the course of the university...most decisions are made not based on merits but on the individuals it would affect...based on this I see research, teaching and practical or community contacts moving parallel, particularly in this [part of the university]".

She was asked how her view could be reconciled with the university's motto of 'knowledge for service'. The answer was:

"...only a policy..., err perhaps a slogan which can be realised through strategically steering the course of the university..."

Another senior academic, although had the view that all the university core activities were service to the community, lamented:

"...these are the principles that guide our activities;...you are also aware, as someone familiar with the system, the truth of the situation, (pause) err, is that our students do not have access to the appropriate equipment...but it is politics and to say how much or the extent to which these activities serve the majority of the communities could be ..."

Apart from the general view of all respondents (lecturers) in the Faculties of Agriculture and Applied Sciences that service referred to all the core activities of the university, many of respondents from the other two faculties; Faculty of Integrated Development Studies and the School of Medicine and Health Sciences also expressed such views. For example a respondent (lecturer) from the School of Medicine Said:

“My view is that, in this university we see teaching, research and fieldwork as service. This is because…apart from incorporating topics relevant to the health needs of the local communities into the syllabus, students also offer some form of service to the local communities during their fieldwork by advising on relevant health matters as balance diet and simple ways of keeping healthy.”

Another lecturer from the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies argued that, even though his background is Economics and handles the economic aspect of the programme; topics are related to the economic needs of the communities, which expresses the view that the teaching activities are service. He explained:

“I do include the general principles of economics in the topics I lecture, but they are treated within the context of the local community; to make sure that both the classroom lecture and the students’ fieldwork are consistent with the general objective of the University”.

However, some lecturers were quick to point out the conceptual and practical differences of the concept. They claim that even though the University’s policy statement clearly sees service as a broader term that includes all the core activities, some of the students do not see it as such; their main objective of coming to the University is to gain a degree like any other student in the old universities. A lecturer in one of the faculties said:

“Well, I have no specific stand on this assumption…, but I do not personally believe that all the core activities of this University are service apart from the so-called third trimester practical fieldwork by students”.

Asked why ‘she’ does not believe that the core activities of UDS were service and refers to the third trimester fieldwork as ‘so-called’. The response was:

“One reason is that some of us [some members in this department] are sidelined because we advocate for the inclusion of some topics in the syllabus which are not in the mandate… [a question on kind of topics advocated for]…those theories that form the bedrock of our subject… When it comes to the fieldwork; we are not consulted properly… the present arrangement of the third trimester fieldwork constrains the effective involvement of our students. Another is the management style… example is the scene outside… My friend, just peep through the window; [looking through window with respondent]...that is the convoy of the VC on a visit to this campus [the Wa Campus] with a convoy of 5 cars (4x4 Wheel Drive). No wonder this University is called 'Japan Motors Annex'. How can it be service when resources are misappropriated this way?"

The general notion of the respondents is that as far as the University is concerned, service is at the heart of its mandate; hence, academic life in the University, whether defined as teaching, research or community outreach activities is part of its service contract. Although, there are evidence of some patches of dissatisfaction and disagreements about the way some academic and management activities are done, there seem to be an acknowledged responsibility by senior academics interviewed to ensure that the University adheres with its policies despite some internal and external opposition. Again, despite the strong view that all the core activities are service, there may be underlying issues which need further analysis and interpretation to have a critical grasp of the situation. This would be critically examined in the interpretation section of this chapter.

8.5 UDS STRATEGIC PLAN

Since its establishment, the University has had its policy and activities pegged on the blueprint that brought about its existence, almost all respondents refer to this blueprint as the 'Mandate'; for example, a head of department noted:

"All what we do here is based on the Mandate... the blueprint that guides all our activities..."

The official policy states that the purpose of the University is to

"blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of Northern Ghana, in particular, and the country as a whole" (GOG, 1992).

In December 2003, the University, under a new Vice-Chancellor (Prof John B. K. Kaburise), developed its first five-year strategic plan (2003 – 2008) based on its initial mandate supported by law. In this strategic plan, its vision is

"...to be the home of world-class pro-poor scholarship...to ensure that there is intellectual and pragmatic input into the development process of the poor, disadvantage and marginalised areas".
(UDS, 2003: 2).

Based on this vision, its mission is to promote equity and transformation of deprived communities through practically oriented, community-based, problem-solving, gender-sensitive and interactive research, teaching, learning and outreach programmes (UDS, 2005a). According to the strategic plan, the University's pro-poor scholarship is demonstrated in its location (located in the poorest part of Ghana), multi-campus nature (campuses spread out and close to poor communities), outreach services, and dynamic link with stakeholders: Ministries, civil society, Non-Governmental Organisations, Departments etc. The planning process of the strategic plan attested to the dynamic stakeholder-link. The Committee, the Strategic Plan Steering Committee (SPSC), that drew up the plan comprised representatives from the University community who were divided into groups for the purposes of consulting stakeholders. An academic who served in the SPSC stated:

"Our current strategic plan is an illustration of how we are blending academic life with the local community...We drew this plan through consultations with our major stakeholders...so it represents the position or if you like it, the views of all stakeholders and not just the university authorities."

A. lecturer in the School of Medicine and Health Sciences, who is a former lecturer at a medical school in one of the old universities in Ghana, stated:

"...one remarkable influence or perhaps effect of the perspective of this University is its historic breakaway from the strict guidelines of the Ghana Medical Association (GMA)... [asked of the effects of the breakaway, the response was]: Well, whether this is a good or a bad thing largely depends on individual views... [asked of the personal view]: For me I think it illustrates our commitment to the local folk..."

The direction of the University's institutional policy is directly focused up on ensuring that all its core activities are relevant to the socio-economic development needs of the deprived communities of Northern Ghana in particular and the country as a whole. As pointed out in an earlier chapter, Northern Ghana is particularly noted for its underdevelopment and generally characterised by rural poverty, environmental degradation, and low participation of females in progressive societal activities such as education among other things. As such, its research, teaching and learning activities are "designed to meet the developmental needs of local communities" (Kaburise, 2003) through programmes that "facilitate the acquisition of knowledge that will enable students to face up to and tackle life's challenges...and acquire skills for lifelong learning and continuous skills" (UDS, 2003).

Despite the acclaimed clarity and focus of the mission of the University, others view the strategic plan as a political tool. A senior academic noted in the course of the interview:

"The University's motto of 'Knowledge for Service' is only a policy, a written statement, err (pause) perhaps a slogan which can be realised through strategically steering the course of the university, effective resource management and communication...you may need to find out the extent to which we have engaged in this areas".

A commonly observed occurrence during the interviews was that many of the respondents (especially lecturers) referred the interviewer to the University's Strategic Plan, when it came to the question of what the University's mission was. One respondent declined when asked to give just a gist of the mission after referring the interviewer to the Strategic Plan; he said:

"Look, gentleman, if you want to know the mission of this university you better consult this (pointing at a book in a bookshelf)...I don't want to be misinterpreted...".

This prompted a suspicion that either respondents had lost touch with the document or simply wanted to avoid giving inaccurate answers (because interview was tape recorded).

8.6 TEACHING AND LEARNING

8.6.1 Mission

The teaching and learning activities in the University is generally based on its 'mandate'. The University Mandate, as referred to by the university academic community is a document that directs the overall aim and activities of the University. This includes a further synthesis of main outlines of areas to be cover in every discipline designed by the National Accreditation Board (NAB) at the onset of the institution. In the mandate, it is stated that the aim of the UDS is to blend all academic activities (teaching, learning and research) with that of the community. It further states among other things its function as:

"The University shall...provide practical training in the subjects taught, particularly subjects which are related to agriculture, social sciences, economics, health, environment and culture and shall in the training use and apply on material available in the north of Ghana in particular and the country in general" (GOG, 1992).

This policy stance is reflected in many of the responses obtained from interviews on questions related to teaching and learning. It is generally argued that the whole teaching and learning activities are based on the general policy directives from the mandate. According to a head of department,

"...that is why the form of teaching and learning that goes on in this department is within the framework of the mandate...combining theory and practice".

A lecturer stated:

"...If you are coming to lecture a course, you get the mandate and then you prepare the course outline to achieve the goal or objective of the mandate... [asked about the objective of the mandate]... making sure that what is treated in the lecture should be practically relevant to the local community..."

The above clearly indicate the policy perspective of the type of teaching and learning UDS is expected to involve in. Its teaching and learning activities should take not only the community needs and expectations into account in the process but use and apply local materials in the community. To keep with this policy orientation, the University adopted the PBL-SPICES approach. This approach is broadly based on the principle of Problem-Based Learning (PBL) and organised to achieve the primary objective namely Student-centred; Problem solving; Integrated approach; Community based and oriented; Electives; Service to the community (SPICES) (Kaburise, 2003).

8.6.2 Academic Programmes (formulation, delivery and evaluation)

The University academic framework is based on a trimester system in which the academic year is divided into three blocks (trimesters). The first two trimesters are university/on-campus based teaching and learning activities and the third trimester spent in communities for a practical component of the academic programme (UDS, 2005b). All respondents referred to this academic framework in the interviews, for example, a lecturer stated:

"...We have three trimesters in an academic year; the first two involve academic work in the classroom and in the third, students go into villages and study the communities in the first year. In the second year they go to identify problems of the communities ...The third year is used to write proposals for intervention..."

Unlike Middlesex University, the University for Development Studies (like other public universities in Ghana) has 'already-made' programmes which students are expected to follow on enrolment to completion depending on the programme type and level. Many of the programmes are four-year undergraduate with a recently (2004/05 academic year) introduced sandwich Master of Philosophy in Development Studies programme directed towards staff of NGOs and development oriented organisations. There are also two-diploma programmes run in some faculties, for example Diploma in Integrated Community Development (DICD) and Diploma in Nursing in the Faculty of Integrated Development and School of Medicine and Health Sciences respectively (UDS, 2004b). Since its establishment, there has not been a major review of the initial programmes contained in the mandate; they remain the same to some extent. A Dean of a faculty remarked:

"...it depends on what kind of evaluation you mean, we do our own informal evaluation based on what we know, for instance we use students' presentations and comments from local communities during our interactions as basis to informally evaluate our work...But objectively talking, and as far as my knowledge is concerned, we haven't had any formal evaluation of our work, particularly; in this faculty...we tried unsuccessfully to secure funds from an international NGO to evaluate our work here".

Almost all the curriculum guide and items for all the programmes in the University are contained in this package (the mandate). Most of the respondents indicated this, for example a lecturer in the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (FIDS) stated:

"You know, we have the mandate, the mandate of the various courses have been formulated already...If you are coming to lecture a course, you get the mandate and then you prepare the course outline to achieve the goal or objective of the mandate..."

Another said:

"I don't have any hand but normally the mandate is there...but as a lecturer you look through some of the broad topics and at times you can add something which may not be found in the mandate but which you think may be relevant to the course or for the students... So that is how it is normally done but I don't have any hand in it."

The main issues that were taken into consideration in the formulation of the curriculum materials by the NAB were based on the legal provisions that established the University. This included the aims and functions of UDS, which emphasised the provision of higher education and research activities that promote the advancement and dissemination of knowledge and its application to the needs and aspirations of Northern Ghana and the country as a whole. Against this background, the curricula materials across all disciplines are structured such that they concerned with issues that are thought to be relevant to the practical needs and concerns of the community. This is geared towards making the curriculum a tool for 'socio-economic transformation driven by the needs of society'. According to the Vice-Chancellor Professor Kaburise, "The curricula of the Faculties of UDS emphasize community entry, community dialogue, extension and practical tools of inquiry" (Ibid: 3). The curricula defy the traditional recommended materials that are usually associated with university level courses involving agriculture, the social sciences and medical studies. One important illustration to this was the impasse between the University and the Ghana Medical Association (GMA). The University's Bachelor of Medicine in the

School of Medicine and Health Sciences curriculum was designed to include courses that involved community-based training, such course were substituted with some other courses in the recommended GMA list of courses. Two assumptions seem to have led to this: firstly, it was thought that such courses were indeed necessary to achieve the overall aim of the University and secondly, the alterations would 'compel' graduates to stay and work in the rural communities for which they were trained for. This is reflected in a comment by an Assistant Registrar,

"...the position of the medical association is clearly not acceptable to us, because their argument is narrowly focussed on so-called standards that are generally hard to apply in our situation...How many of the Legon [University of Ghana] and Tech [Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology] trained medical doctors are working in this area or even in the country?...we want to train and retain our people to serve these helpless population".

The GMA thinks otherwise, arguing for *status quo* to be maintained. As a result, the programme and graduates are not recognised by the association. In the current Strategic Plan, the non-accreditation of programmes in the School of Medicine and Health Sciences is cited as one of the threats to the University (UDS, 2003).

The nature and source of the curriculum and the top hierarchy (of the university) perceptions of it (curriculum) seem to create some attitude of indifference among some academic staff, especially lecturers. Some of them adhere strictly to the mandate to avoid any clash with authorities. This is demonstrated by a statement from a respondent:

"There is big internal politics and if you are restructuring a particular course...if you are not careful somebody becomes disturbed somewhere...So it is a dicey issue that you don't have to play much with".

Another stated:

"...although it is a good thing to have a direction as a university, I think the mandate is putting lots and lots of constrains on creativity...for instance I wanted to introduce a particular topic in [the area respondent's teach] which I thought would helped to strengthen the syllabus to achieve its objectives...My proposal met an outright rejection without any explanation given to me...".

However, other respondents supported the already made curriculum for different reasons, for example; a respondent (assistant registrar) said:

"None of the University staff wrote the mandate, it is a package that came with the establishment of the university... and I think this is a good thing because nobody would have the chance to meddle with the curriculum...This possibility cannot be rule out because some of the lecturers were recruited from Legon [University of Ghana] and the other old universities and still see things from this point. [Asked about curriculum development] ...of course, no situation is static, we would encourage and support changes that would lead to achieving our objective".

Despite attempts to make sure that lecturers adhere to the provisions in the mandate, a number of lecturers interviewed indicated a form of limited freedom to modify some aspects of course but not an entire course; a lecturer said:

"When it comes to improvement of the syllabus, I think it's based on you the lecturer, but when it comes to, may be, adding a new programme, the HOD [head of department] has a say and then they will meet at academic board level because you cannot change a course without getting a consent of the Academic Board. But when it comes to modifying the course that you are handling, you may realised that some topics might not be needed, then you can kind of remove them or add certain things as you go along the course".

Hence, as far as the curriculum and its development in the various faculties is concerned, there are variations between faculties and between individual lecturers within faculties. The general understanding however, being that, while in some instances minor changes could be made by adding relevant topics and/or removing irrelevant ones, in other instances lecturers are not allowed to temper with 'the gospel truth' (a term used by a respondent to describe the mandate). This situation brings to the fore the lacking sense of uniformity in engagement with the mandate across the faculties.

The data showed that the delivery process of the curriculum is divided into two components, the classroom based lectures and seminars usually done in the first and second trimesters and then the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP). A lecturer noted:

"The delivery process is structured in such a way that students have lectures and seminars on campus... especially topics related to the local people [asked for example]... we are presently treating a topic on 'ethnic conflicts'; trying to understand its nature, causes, effects, solutions and how to prevent... This is an example of incorporating issues that confronts this part of the country into the curriculum...."

The trimester system was particularly mentioned by all respondents, for example, a lecturer in the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies said:

"Our academic year is divided into three sections or what might be called trimesters ...for both academic work and field practical work that provides the student the opportunity to work in the rural community or basically apply what is learnt in the classroom to the rural context".

Another lecturer in the faculty of Integrated Development Studies noted:

"We have a trimester system that is unique in itself from other universities in this country..."

Study patterns are usually full-time for diploma and undergraduate programmes and a sandwich for MPhil in Development Studies. The type and nature of programmes usually influences its delivery to some limited extent in the first two trimesters, for example some courses in the School of Medicine and Health Sciences involve classroom lectures, seminars, laboratory activities and some clinical experiments in some teaching hospitals (issues related to this would be touched on in later sections). A lecturer in the School of Medicine and Health Sciences indicated:

"Most of what I do with my students is clinically based, so we spent about sixty percent of our time at the Regional Hospital; the Teaching Hospital, sometimes we go to Kumasi which has up-to-date equipment...Yes our students also participate in the field practical programme like any student of this University".

A Faculty such as Integrated Development Studies conduct lectures and seminars. The nature and characteristics of the teaching and learning process in the first two trimesters is more or less like the process in the old universities, however, many of the respondents argued that it is ensured that whatever is taught is as much as possibly related to issues relevant to the community, for example Ethic conflicts under the department of Social, Political and Historical Studies in the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies; effects of bush burning and tree planting on the environment under Earth and Environmental Sciences in the Faculty of Applied Sciences and related issues in Renewable Natural Resources in the Faculty of Agriculture.

The TTFPP is the main activity in the third trimester; it has two interrelated faces or benefits: students' academic benefit and community developmental benefits. This section will cover the former while the later would be covered in the community engagement section of this chapter. The TTFPP is organised and run by the Centre for Field Practical Training and Community Relations (CFPTCR), which ensures that students are put into appropriate teams and allocated to communities. A lecturer in the Faculty of Applied Science said:

"Students from all the faculties are combined and grouped into teams, membership of every team usually has a student from every faculty or perhaps every programme...and we as lecturers take active part in the supervision of the programme".

The rationale for this approach is to "enable students to appreciate community problems and opportunities in a holistic manner...help broaden the knowledge and experience as they would have the opportunity to interact and learn from each other" (UDS, 2004a: 95). The programme requires students to live and interact with people in the local communities in every third trimester for three consecutive years. In the first year, students are introduced to community studies and work towards acquiring techniques, basic skills and basic tools required to work in a community. The second year is used to help students in the application of techniques, skills and tools acquired in data collection, analysis and identification of challenges in their training communities. By the third year, students are expected to demonstrate some experience in using relevant tools and techniques and familiarity with challenges in the community. On this basis, students will be assisted to work with communities to draw up appropriate plans and interventions to deal with challenges identified. A lecturer said:

"...We have three trimesters in an academic year; the first two involve academic work in the classroom and in the third, students go into villages and study the communities in the first year. In the second year they go to identify problems of the communities ...The third year is used to write proposals for intervention..."

The work of the CFPTCR is carried out by a team of lecturers from the various faculties. Regarding the TTFPP, some respondents noted the challenges likely to affect the effectiveness of the programme as constraints in supervision due to lack of means of transport to do effective supervision and low remuneration for supervisors. A member of the CFPTCR noted:

"Despite doing our very best, we are faced with a number of constraints...apart from the transport; funding constraints have negatively affected supervisors' morale because the remuneration is not encouraging at all".

Other respondents think the eight weeks allocated to the TTFPP is too much and serves as free time for students. In relation to this, a lecturer from the Faculty of Agriculture noted:

"I don't think they deserve that (eight weeks). So they will just go there, waste their time and even it will surprise you that some of them may not even go to the community. I have seen some still roaming around in town, so if they hear that the supervisors are coming then they will rush to the community".

The Vice-Chancellor enumerated the challenges facing the TTFPP as:

- Low student-lecturer contact hours in the field;
- Logistic constraints, especially the issue of transporting students to the field and back;
- Clearly inadequate incentive system for supervising staff;
- Inadequate documentation and dissemination of the rich experience brought from the field;

- Problems of assessing and grading students
- Poor orientation of partners on the TTFPP

(Kaburise, 2003).

Assessment of students' work is done through varied methods depending on the course, programme and/or trimester. Apart from class assignments, the traditional sit-down and write examination is generally used as a means to assess students at the end of the first and second trimesters. A lecturer in Agriculture Technology said:

"Assessment in the first and second trimesters is mainly by examination...I, like many colleagues, usually conduct mid-trimester exams and then the general end-of-trimester examinations; the third trimester assessment is based on students' oral presentation and written report of the fieldwork".

In some cases such as in the Medical School and Applied Science faculties, students may be required to do laboratory experiments. According to a respondent in the Medical School,

"Students are assessed using variety of methods...written exams which include mid-trimester and end-of-trimester exams, laboratory clinical experiments and field practical work in the community."

In the TTFPP, students are assessed based on their attendance of an orientation programme; their field notes (field notebooks); and their seminar and workshop (presentations). Some respondents mentioned the inconsistent and subjective nature of the TTFPP assessments, especially if assessed by external evaluators. In commenting on the effectiveness of the current assessment and evaluation of the TTFPP, a lecturer said:

"... the main problem being picked from all these is that, I think, there is a lack of uniformity in the criteria used in assessment... all the external examiners come from Legon, Cape Coast (University of Cape Coast)...while we emphasize on the impact of the field practical work on the communities, they look at the intellectual characteristics of students".

Support from international donor organisations has in recent years impacted on the teaching and learning process in Ghanaian higher education institutions. One of such support schemes is the Teaching and Learning Innovation Fund (TALIF) initiated by the World Bank. Under this scheme funds are provided for academics to develop innovative ways of teaching and learning. The UDS is currently part of this scheme, which some respondents have praised for aiding them to develop and enhance their teaching and learning. A lecturer in the Faculty of Applied Science stated:

"...this fund has helped us to develop an innovative system of supervising students through networking students with communities..."

The TALIF is one of the University's recent benefits from international donor agencies like the World Bank. Until recently, the World Bank refused to recognise the University for Development Studies because its model and perspectives did not fall within its policy guidelines and perspectives for higher education delivery. This stance influenced other international donor agencies to become sceptical about the University and "this greatly affected the development of partnerships and cooperation with big international donor agencies", said an assistant registrar.

8.6.3 Catchments and Target Groups

According to the 2005 Vice-Chancellors Report, the University for Development Studies has a total student population of 4911 students (UDS, 2005b) and up to 70 percent of students come from Northern Ghana and 30 percent from the rest of the country. Generally, admission requirements into the University are similar to the traditional universities in Ghana, and are open to all qualified applicants throughout the country and beyond, although preference is given to applicants hailing from the catchments area. An Assistant Registrar in charged of admissions stated:

"Although we welcome and consider applications from all over the country, preference is usually given to applicants who come from the University's catchments, but this does not mean that we do not consider applicants with very good results from other parts of the country".

In some instances preference may be given on particular qualities that favour the policy of the institution (e.g. experience working in the local communities in the University's catchments areas). Unlike the case of Middlesex University in which the University canvasses for students, the UDS has far more applicants than it can admit. For example during the 2004/2005 admission session, the University admitted only 1918 out of 3272 applicants, representing 58.6 percent (Ibid). As stated earlier, issues of gender inequality is a widespread phenomenon in Ghana and Northern Ghana in particular. Female participation in higher education is generally low in Ghana and particularly serious in Northern Ghana. Against this background, UDS has established an office to ensure equity of access for gender. The Gender Mainstreaming Programme Office (GMPO) has an objective of promoting gender parity. It is aimed at working "towards reducing and eventually eliminating the gender inequalities within the University and its constituent communities" (UDS, 2004b: 61). According to a lecturer linked to GMPO, "This policy allows for more female applicants to gain admission ensuring that all female applicants who meet the basic entry requirements are admitted. The access policy is based on the idea that equality in access to education is an important way to reduce poverty in the context of Northern Ghana. Although this policy is hailed by all respondents who touched on it, the potential of it been misused could be high considering the strong social bonds and networks that characterise the communities in Northern Ghana. This could lead to several undesirable practices such as favouritism, admitting candidates who do not meet the minimum requirements, which could result in lowering of academic standards required at university level. This could also raise questions of gender discrimination since many boys in the area hail from very poor backgrounds and worked against all odds to get to this stage.

8.6.4 Criteria for Evaluating Programmes

Issues of evaluating quality of academic programmes in UDS are within the threshold of traditional practices. There seems not to be a clear corresponding innovative policy on evaluation of the entire teaching and learning process within this new paradigm in which the University is operating. Data from both interviews and institutional documents points to five methods by which evaluation of the teaching and learning process is done. Unlike Middlesex, the use of retention and completion rates of students to determine the quality is not a characteristic of the method of evaluation in UDS. However, external and internal mechanisms are used to evaluate programmes; a head of department stated:

"We determine quality programmes by various methods; first of all we have independent external examiners who evaluate levels, standards of our questions, our marking and everything else, that is external. I already mentioned the National Accreditation Board. In addition to that we normally let students at the end of each course anonymously evaluate the lecturers....In addition to that we also evaluate it, we have departmental meetings in which we discuss our courses and so on. So we use all these methods, external and internal."

Generally, the internal mechanism involves staff members having reflective discussions in meetings at the end of each trimester. In such meetings they identify challenges and discuss generally how to meet these challenges. Another internal method is feedback from students. This is done by letting students complete questionnaires; questions cover wide range of issues including lecturers methods, attendance, quality of course (whether teaching and learning reflects course initial objectives). External evaluation mechanisms include the use of independent external examiners from other universities to evaluate levels, standard of questions and marking. At the end of evaluation process, the external examiners give some recommendations. However, some of the respondents noted the inconsistency of some of the evaluations made by some external examiners (usually from the old universities) partly because they do not completely understand the objectives of some of the courses.

The National accreditation Board (NAB) is another external body that evaluates the quality of teaching and learning in the University. The NAB is similar to the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) in the United Kingdom; it is the national body responsible for monitoring and ensuring that tertiary education institutions maintain the highest quality in their delivery, in line with national provisions and policies. As mentioned above, the NAB was the body that designed the entire curriculum of the University for Development Studies based on the legal provisions that established the University, hence its part in the evaluation of the teaching and learning process is seen by some of the interviewees as an essential guide to the achievement of the objectives.

Apart from this, an important and visible method used to evaluate the quality of programmes is the availability of relevant equipment and material (resources) to support teaching and learning activities. Since the establishment of the University, the general Ghanaian public, relevant stakeholders and the media have used the issue of resources to give sharp evaluation of the quality of programmes. The Ghana Medical Association (GMA) has used, on different occasions, the lack of basic equipment at the Tamale Teaching Hospital (TTH) to support the effective training of medical students as a point to attack the quality of medical doctors being trained at the University. These criticisms later led to the transfer of the medical students to the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital (KATH) in the southern Ghana. Similar criticisms have been made by the media and by the public in different forums.

Referring to the mission of the University, it is stated among other things "The results...of knowledge acquired through the teaching and work of the University shall be disseminated through extension services, publications and such other methods that are considered suitable by the University" (GOG, 1992). Against this background, it might be crucial to see how the evaluation of the academic programmes is reflected in the aims. Although the methods currently used by the university to evaluate, its teaching and learning activities are well within the provisions, the absence of rigorous and reliable methods to evaluating the extent and quality of extension services conducted by both academic staff and students no doubt leaves a vacuum in understanding the overall quality of the core activity.

The issues of league tables and how they influence the perceptions of the public on the quality of higher education institutions have not yet gain prominence in the Ghanaian higher education arena.

8.7 RESEARCH ACTIVITY

In principle, research and teaching activities represents two interrelated activities at the University for Development Studies. It can be termed neither a teaching university nor a research one, but it is expected to use both core activities as a means to develop the local communities and the country as a whole. However, in practice teaching activities seem to be the core activities of most lecturers.

8.7.1 Mission

According to the Law that established the University, its aim is to "undertake research and promote the advancement and dissemination of knowledge and its application to the needs and aspirations of the people of Ghana". This is in line with its focus on blending the academic world with that of the community to bring about total development in Northern Ghana in particular and the nation as a whole. Therefore, the research policy of the University places a strong emphasis on research activities reflecting the developmental needs of the local communities. Although research occupies an important position in the activities of the University, there seems to be limited and systematic engagement in research, deans and head of departments are expected to oversee research in their respective faculties.

To pursue its research policy agenda, in 2000 the University established a research centre known as the Centre for Interdisciplinary Research (CIR). The aim of this research centre is to

"...promote and seek support for and conduct interdisciplinary research, facilitate and co-ordinate the research activities of the academic faculties, train researchers, and disseminate research findings through professional meetings and publications" (UDS, 2004b).

The Centre focuses on applied and basic research; it also conducts research that is policy-oriented and demand-driven. It works towards becoming what it termed a "world-class fountainhead", in which its research and scholarship would propel the overall development of the nation and Northern Ghana in particular. According to the Director of the Centre, the centre has completed a collaborative research project it carried out with the Ghana AIDS Commission (as the financier). He acknowledges some setbacks in the Centres operations due to lack of resources (human, material and financial), even though its plans are to expand and involve more in commissioned research, consultancy work and seek partnerships with local and international NGOs, government ministries, departments and agencies and other relevant bodies in areas of research and training. Despite this, research in the University is still individual and/or departmental driven.

8.7.2 Types of Research

Research activities at the University for Development Studies have not been officially categorised for instance into basic and/or applied. However, analysis of university official documents and interviews of academic staff points to the idea that research activities are generally applied, despite the fact that the CIR policy agenda includes the conducting of basic research. A respondent noted:

"We do research that would have bearing on the community that we are in".

Another said: The emphases of the University policy statement on making research reflect the practical needs of its local community or catchments areas is an example of this. Although it is arguable that such research activities may not necessarily be practical oriented, yet may usually geared towards understanding some relevant concepts and principles that underlie the idea of knowledge for service. According to a lecturer:

"It is very difficulty to specifically say what type of research we involve in, but as you know, here is a developmental university and all our steps should reflect this...whether the research is practical based or theoretical based, it must lead to solving a particular problem of the community...this means that research could also perhaps be directed towards understanding some social phenomenon, for example a research on 'Conflict Resolution', which we are presently planning, putting together a proposal, could been seen as not applied because we are trying to analyse theories that underpin conflicts...But it is relevant to some of the communities because of increasing chieftaincy conflicts in the three northern regions".

Generally, there are no official guidelines regarding what type and/or area of research the University's academic community should involve. The academic staff have the freedom to conduct any form or type of research that is within their areas of specialisation or of interest to them. A respondent said:

"I have been lecturing in this university for almost five, six years now and nobody has told me to do this research or that research. I do the type of research I like...I personally did another study on the quality of water used for irrigation in the Tamale Municipality and realised that...most of the water resources that we have hear are not of good quality (hygienic) especially at Kamina Barracks, is one of the major examples I can give".

Research activity in UDS may be grouped into; official university research (faculties, centres and departments controlled), academic staff research (official or private) and/or student's research. University research usually involves collaborative projects with partner organisations, which are usually located within relevant faculties and departments and are usually headed by experts in relevant fields. For example, the University has an on-going collaborative research project with International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)

Washington DC (UNICEF sponsored) at the Faculty of Agriculture entitled: *Food – based strategies to reduce micronutrient deficiencies in the Savelugu-Nanton District.* Another example of an official university research study is at the School of Medicine and Health Sciences; the School is currently working on a research funded by the Institute of Tropical Medicine (Charite), Humboldt University, Berlin and entitled: *Intermittent Prophylactic Treatment (IPT) with sulfadoxine-pynimethamine for malaria in children: A multi-centric, randomized, double-blind and placebo-controlled trail.* Staff research may involve an individual staff member working on an official university research project or a private research study, in any case the outcome of such research activities counts as part of the research portfolio of the university. This is reflected in a number of responses from respondents, for example a respondent said:

"...so it depends on what type of research project the department gets, if it is related to your field the head can get you involved, it also depends on the interest of the individual lecturer, so you can team up with others to come out with a research topic and then you research into it or individual can go solo".

Then there is the research conducted by students at the end of their programme, some of these research studies are based on real time real life issues. Many of the students in the newly introduced master of philosophy programme in Development Studies conduct action research; this is based on real issues in the organisations they work or are related to issues their organisations are working on.

Another important characteristics of research in the UDS is that there seem to be no full-time staff for research work apart from the Director of the Centre for Interdisciplinary Research (CIR), and the research assistant, all academic staff are expected to be involve in a form of research, usually in collaboration with other staff members. The director of CIR lamented:

"...lack of those things is our major constrain. Apart from this, we need a strong research team here who have varied but relevant expertise...but the only full-time staff in this centre is me and the research assistant".

Most academic staff members interviewed indicated shaping their research proposals and research agenda within the guidelines of the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund). The GETFund, almost like the Funding Councils in the United King Kingdom, allocates funds to universities to conduct research. This is gradually influencing research activities in the Ghanaian higher education arena. Comparatively, interview responses indicated that a high percentage of academic staff time is used in the teaching and learning process, although respondents where reluctant to assign a percentage to the level of commitment to teaching and research, for instance a respondent noted:

"Much of my time is used in teaching, preparing teaching materials and marking assignments, and also field practical supervision…but I am trying to do a joint research project with some colleagues in collaboration with a new NGO".

8.7.3 Catchments and Target Areas

Going by the mission and vision of the University for Development Studies, research is expected to be directed towards investigating issues that are of relevance to the development of Northern Ghana and the nation as a whole. Against this background, respondents indicate that research activities are generally geared towards aspects of the socio-economic, health and political lives of the community, which particularly requires interventions to bring about the desired developments; developmental challenges identified as rural poverty, environmental degradation, poor methods of farming and health related challenges among other things. According to the Registrar:

"…Our research reflects our commitment to the local community, that is, Northern Ghana as a whole and local or rural communities in particular…what I mean is that our main target group are the local communities in the three northern regions but this does not mean staff can not or do not research into other areas."

An earlier statement by a lecturer, in part reflected this:

"…but as you know, here is a developmental university and all our steps should reflect this…whether the research is practical based or theoretical based, it must lead to solving a particular problem of the community…this means that research could also perhaps be directed towards understanding some social phenomenon, for example a research on 'Conflict Resolution', which we are presently planning, putting together a proposal, could been seen as not applied because we are trying to analyse theories that underpin conflicts...But it is relevant to some of the communities because of increasing chieftaincy conflicts in the three northern regions".

Research in the various faculties (disciplines) is related to aspects of the community that present challenges to the development of the communities. Some recently completed research projects include: 'Integrated Poultry-Fish Production in the Tolon-Kumbungu District, Northern Region, Ghana' and 'Development of rope pump for rural communities in Northern Ghana' in the Faculty of Agriculture; 'The development of odour-baited sampling and control of mosquitoes and other insect vectors of parasitic diseases' in the Faculty of Applied Sciences and 'Community involvement in Waste Management and Sanitation in Navrongo Township' in the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies.

Despite acknowledged targeting research to issues related to the socio-economic and political developments of Northern Ghana, many more research projects are donor sponsored and directed which do not necessarily reflect the identified issues confronting the local communities but reflect those of the objectives of the donors. A senior academic commented:

"Many of the research projects I have completed during my seven years work in this University have been sponsored by either the UNICEF or Government of Ghana or some other organisations and they usually shaped and directed the projects".

Despite these donor directions, some members are able to achieve departmental or individual research objectives and interests within the framework of the funded research projects. The head of department for Agricultural Mechanisation had this view:

"It is give and take relationship. OK, err your donor to some extent says you have to work in this area but the actual content will be set on what you yourself is capable of influencing that donor. Take for example the Lowland Rice Project...I have done a lot of work on rice and not on rice agronomy but it was rice that was funded, that enabled me to do work on water management".

The issue of research targeting the three Northern regions is not generally the case in some instances, for example some respondents indicated that their private research projects usually do not necessarily target the catchments of the University, but are influenced by factors such as the economic rewards and/or to increase publication portfolio for the purpose getting promotion to a higher rank in the University. A respondent stated:

"I do commercial research for organisations such as CRS [sic Catholic Relief Service]...another objective is to get my work published in a recognised journal so as to increase the chances of gaining promotion... Although some of my research targets the local communities, it is more influenced by these two factors [economics and promotion]".

The varied factors that influence research catchments and targeted areas have made it especially difficult to determine the extent to which policy provisions matches with practice, for example, factors such as economic and academic (promotion) rewards. Although some of the research activities are directed towards serving either the needs of the targeted communities or commercial targets (in the case of private projects), many more are done just to enhance research portfolios for the purpose of promotion.

8.7.4 Evaluation of Research

The data indicated that research activities in the University for Development Studies is not centrally coordinated, they are faculty-based even though there are instances where joint research projects are carried out by two faculties, for example, Faculties of Applied Sciences and Integrated Development Studies. As such, there has not been any form university-wide evaluation of research activities since the establishment of the University. However, some faculties, in their own little way do some for of evaluation of staff research activities especially during promotions. According to an Assistant Registrar,

"Apart from ad hoc evaluation exercises carried out by some individual departments and faculties, there hasn't really been an evaluation of research work in the entire University to see whether it is actually moving in line with the mandate...it was one of the duties of the Centre for Interdisciplinary Research but unfortunately it is crippled with lack of resources to do that."

Generally, two clear criteria for evaluating research surfaced from the data: one is through publications (journals and books) and two, the impact of research on the community. The most widely cited method of evaluation research by respondents was publications, for example, a respondent said:

"...our progress in research as a faculty is measured by the number of publications we turn out at the end of the year...look at this notice on the board [respondent pointing to a notice on a notice board], it shows by faculty the number of publications, indicating the journals or books...Well, the most important thing is get published in a recognised journal".

A faculty's research progress is usually determined by comparing the research output of previous years to the current year. A higher number of journal and/or book publications indicate positive progress. Likewise, individual academic staff research work is evaluated by the number of publications done, and usually counts towards promotions. In evaluating research through this, serious regard is not placed on the type of research (whether basic or applied) but the nature of the publication such as whether it is single or joint publication, a journal article, a chapter of a book or a book, among other things. This method seems to leave very little room for evaluating work done within the framework of linking research activities to the general objective of the University.

The impact of research on the community also serves as a method of evaluating research. In these instances, the community becomes the evaluator; whether in the objective or subjective sense of the word is for an insider's comment[31]. A respondent noted:

"The other way is the impact on the community. If you give them some interventions and they continue using it and they come for more it means it is good...And of course, if funding agencies that have funded you come back to tell you that they want to work on the second phase of it with you or a new phase of what you have done show that it is good".

This form of evaluation is informal although practically oriented and seems to reflect the core objective of the University. The challenge in it may be centred on how to understand

In some instances familiarity of community with researchers often lead to a nod for positive impact of research on ›mmunity.

and grasp the extent and magnitude of the goodness or otherwise of the research. The researcher might need to develop other alternative evaluation measures to understand the extent to which research reflects the research objective of the university.

Other methods used to evaluate the University research is the number of GETFund research projects awarded to it. The more projects awarded to the University the more money it gets and the more prestigious it becomes. Higher education institutions in Ghana are beginning to use GETFund allocations as a means to determine or ascertain research quality. Related to this are the number of commissioned research projects awarded to a university by international non-governmental organisations and foundations such as UNICEF, Action Aid and Ford Foundation. According to a dean,

"...apart from those I have just mentioned, the number of GETFund research projects we receive and successfully execute is really very important in sending a message out to authorities outside the university...also research projects from international organisations such as UNICEF and so on".

8.8 COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT AND ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITIES

To attempt to understand what community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are in the University for Development Studies is to move into complex array of issues that are invariably and inextricably linked to every aspect of the University's life. As a University designed to serve the needs of its community, attempts are made by all of its core activities to this. The underlying principles guiding its entire operation are based on community interaction, discussing and understanding 'local knowledge' and blending such knowledge to 'scientific knowledge' in ways that would propel effective and efficient use of local resources to better the lot of the communities concerned. The Community Outreach Programme (COP) is the underlying strategy that guides the relations and interactions between the University community and the local community. The COP is a strategy that seeks to connect, conceptually and practically, all the activities of the University to the developmental needs of its catchments, through the creation and organisation of programmes that involve the practicalisation of such activities and directly interacting with communities. According to the University policy, it "represents the concrete organisational base of the University that will ensure that its vision of promoting pro-poor scholarship to achieve the developmental aspirations of deprived communities is achieved" (UDS, 2004a:91). A respondent said:

"The third trimester fieldwork is the creative component of our work here, it makes us distinct from the other universities... and keep us well closed to the local communities in the practical sense".

Under this programme, all activities are not only interactive but are appropriately and effectively linked to the community needs. The TTFPP is acknowledgeably the main activity in connection to this.

8.8.1 The Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP)

The TTFPP is one of the main ways through which the University engages with the community. As stated in a previous section, the PPFTT has two interrelated dimensions: students' academic benefits and community developmental benefits, both of which stand as forms of the University engaging with the community. However, this section would be more directed to understanding how the university community works, interacts or engages with the local community to achieve its developmental objectives. In the third trimester, students go to live in and interact with communities for up to eight weeks for three consecutive years of their four year degree programme. Apart from the specific academic benefits of the programme to students, many respondents expressed some assurance that it effectively links the University with its communities in which there is a better understanding of not only the developmental challenges facing them, but the community's understanding, cooperation and appreciation of the University's objective and work. A respondent said:

"I think the practical fieldwork has brought the University closer to the community than anyone had imagined...and our relationship grows from strength to strength...they have built strong confidence in us, for example, our students are well received in the communities but researchers who go there are not well received or well cooperated with because they have some feelings that researchers have often used them to get money for their personal benefits".

The TTFPP is a "community-centred and entails a three-year active and constructive interaction between the University and the communities to work towards the solution of their developmental problems" (UDS, 2004b: 33). Hence, it is designed to ensure that by the end of the third year of their involvement in the TTFPP (interaction with local communities); students would develop appropriate projects, interventions, which are directed towards dealing with identified issues that stand as challenges to the communities. Students usually do this in association with local people or some developmental organisations, for example a respondent stated:

"Two of our passed students who currently work with a local developmental organisation conducted their field practical work in collaboration with a local community and the organisation which resulted in the development of a superb method of extracting oil from shea-nuts".

During the TTFPP, students also work directly in existing programmes or projects being carried out by local and international development organisations or bodies that predisposes them not only to experiences of working with the community but gaining first hand information about the challenges and developmental needs of the given communities. The outcome of students TTFPP activities should lead to the development of a database concerning developmental matters in communities, which is made available to district assemblies, government departments and non-governmental organisation to use to initiate developments.

Although such engagement with the community involves practicalising the teaching and learning activities in real live situation, it is inextricably connected to the research activities of the University, especially students' research activities. Academic programmes are integrated with research in that students demonstrate the concepts and knowledge learnt from the teaching and learning activity in a form of research projects. A lecturer in Project Programme Planning and Implementation (PPPI) noted:

"Though it is an integrated programme, each has its own objective. But most of them also relate to the mission of the University. If you take Project Planning and Implementation for instance relate to our third trimester programme, where the students are supposed to go to the community. Especially it starts from the first year, they go there to identify the profile of that community and the second year they go there to identify the problems, constrains, potentials of that particular community. The third year, based on the constraints, err potentials and problems, go there and design strategies and other alternatives as to how to address those problems at the community level".

Whether this is indeed the reality or not comes to the understanding that although the end product of students' fieldwork reports is to build a database for relevant bodies and organisations to use in strategising development plans for local communities, this is yet to be realised. In effect, the impact of students' third trimester fieldwork on community development could be limited to some degree.

8.8.2 Interactions with Governmental and Non-Governmental Organisations

Apart from interacting with local communities (at family, village, town etc levels), students also work with developmental organisations, District Assemblies and other government departments that work towards the development of the communities. There are 34 district assemblies (e.g. Yendi DA, Tolon-Kumbungu DA, Bong DA, Kintampo DA), over one thousand local and international NGOs (e.g. Amasachina, Organisation for Community Assistance and Development (OCAD), Action Aid, TRAX, UNICEF, UNDP, World Vision, Catholic Relief Service, School for Life). This organisations and bodies are part of the community structures through which the University pursues its objectives. The University currently worked on numerous development projects with several organisations. These included *Tree Planting Outreach Intervention In 'Tree For Life Project'* collaboration with Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA) and Savannah Agriculture Research Institute (SARI); *Food-based strategies to reduce micronutrient deficiencies in the Savelugu-Nanton District* collaboration with International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), Washington DC, sponsored by UNICEF and *Genetic Host Factors in Intermittent Prophylactic Treatment in Infants (IPTi) and Antimalarial Treatment* collaboration with World Health Organisation (WHO).

In addition to this, the University also runs collaborative academic programmes with some NGOs; one example is the TRAX Programme Support in which the two partners draw up an academic programme to train professional in developmental organisations on specific intervention strategies to be delivered by the University.

Apart from the establishment of working relations with governmental and non-governmental organisations, the University has some collaboration with other higher education institutions in and outside the country, for example, the University has collaboration with the Department of Parasitology (Division 5), Faculty of Medicine, Leiden University Medical Centre, Holland in conjunction with Ghana Health Services (GHS), Northern Region on malaria control in children. Another example is a collaboration between the Faculty of Applied Sciences and New Energy (a non-governmental organisation in Northern Region) to assess the impact of solar lamps ('Magic-lamps' and 'Flexi-lamps' brands) on participants using it for functional literacy classes. Collaboration with other universities in Ghana is limited to a large extent to academic oriented activities such as serving as external examiners, mainly from public universities – University of Ghana and the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology. Collaboration with universities outside the country is mostly concentrated with those from wealthy developed nations and activities are largely project-oriented, development-oriented and/or sponsorship-oriented. Some examples of collaborative institutions are The Royal Veterinary and Agricultural University of Denmark; Humboldt University of Berlin, Germany; Okanagan University College, Canada; Tropical Health Educational Trust (THET).

8.8.3 Business Enterprises

As far as activities that are business oriented and geared towards making extra income is concerned, the University's involvement, if any, remains a wish rather than an action. In the University's strategic plan, a list of existing and potential sources of funding to it has not mentioned explicitly or implicitly any involvement or intention of involvement in any form or kind of organised and rigorous economic activities that would serve as reliable source of funds to supplement the existing insufficient sources. At present, almost hundred percent of the funds used in running the University come from central government and student registration fees. The allocation of the funds is based on the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) formula stated earlier on. In the strategic statement, two main measures outlined to financially sustain the plan are:

- Promoting the culture of cost consciousness in order to ensure that the limited financial resources are judiciously applied to accomplish the goals of the plan
- Increasing the internally generated funds through the following activities
    - Cost recovery measures
    - 'Small payments' from District Assemblies who have students in the University
    - Central government as first source of income
    - Encourage alumni to contribute in diverse ways
    - Levying members of the University for the use of its facilities
    - University consultancies
    - Limited use of university facilities to 'outsiders' for a fee.
    - Introduction of strict and regular maintenance regimes

The above measures seem to be more of the usual conventional rhetoric, reflecting a typical list of financial sustainability measures in contemporary higher education institutions across the world. Perhaps, the argument for such an 'anti-enterprise' (entrepreneurial) stance is because of its pro-development and pro-poor orientations in which all its activities are geared towards meeting the needs of the deprived Northern Ghana. A senior academic noted:

"The main partners of this University are the deprived communities; we can not make money out of them. We can not also make money from the NGOs who come to help us do our work, that is why our financial situation is precarious...But we still must have to do something, a form of business".

Despite the seemingly 'anti-enterprise' stance of the University's policy perspectives as analysed from the researchers' standpoint, data indicate that some faculties, especially Faculties of Agriculture and Applied Sciences have developed advanced plans of setting up businesses; for example, the Department of Horticulture in the Faculty of Agriculture has completed a proposal of commercial activities it intends to embark on. These include quality vegetable seed production and distribution; production and sale of tree seedlings; establishment of ornamental nursery and beekeeping.

8.8.4 Evaluation of Community Engagement and Entrepreneurial Activities

Data indicates that much of the evaluation of community engagement and entrepreneurial activities is centred on the students' work in the TTFPP, although some respondents mentioned some indirect means such as the communities' level of satisfaction of interventions and the use of the level of academic staff work in the community as part of the criteria for promotions. In a follow up question on how the University evaluates its engagement with the community, a dean of a faculty noted

"...evaluation of community service in this faculty and in fact the whole university is more or less based on the third trimester fieldwork. But we also use to a limited extent, lecturers' engagement with the community for purposes of promotion and also to indirectly determine the extent the faculty engages with the community".

Assessment in the TTFPP concentrates on the individual student's general participation, which includes attendance of orientation exercise for the programme, supervising in the field site (entries in field notebook), and presentation of reports in seminars/workshops. Despite the fact that there is no well established structure to scientifically evaluate the impact of community engagement, there is a general consensus that its impact was positive and led to some observable effects such as adoption of efficient ways of farming, and simply hygiene and healthy practices which have change the lives of some. According to a respondent in the Faculty of Agriculture,

"...another benefit of the field practical work is that many of the farmers have adopted simple planting techniques like appropriate spacing of plants and concentrating on reasonable piece of land that can be effectively managed...We usually organise an open forum at the end of the year with selected communities to hear their views..."

Although most respondents are of the view that the communities are benefiting from the work of students in the third trimester, some think the third trimester is a waste of time and resources which should be discontinued; a lecturer said:

"...as for the third trimester programme, the little said about it the better, more particularly in this faculty. It sometimes runs into total disarray...So no grounds for any evaluation to see its impacts on the community…but I understand it is flourishing well in other faculties because they listen to the foot soldiers".

8.9 RESOURCES

As stated earlier in the previous chapter, resources in this research cover human, material and financial dimensions. According to the 2005 Vice-Chancellor's Report, "The University's resource-based is extremely thin, mainly because it did not have a foundation grant like other public universities in Ghana" (UDS, 2005b). Many of the respondents also painted the same picture when asked about the resources supporting their work.

The University currently has a work force of about 400 with the academic staff making more than a third. In some faculties, there are shortages of appropriate expertise to handle relevant courses. One example is the School of Medicine and Health Sciences, which is noted to be lacking lecturers in some key courses and relying on visiting professors from the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology and the University of Ghana. However, in faculties such as Integrated Development Studies and Agriculture there seem to be enough experts to handle programmes and courses. Physical infrastructure such as lecture rooms, laboratories, teaching and learning equipment (e.g. ICT support), and means of transport were some of the material resources respondents mentioned as lacking which negatively affect the effectiveness and efficiency of their work as academics. A lecturer said:

"we lack vital equipment at the teaching hospital to support students' work…these two rooms are the only places allocated to the teaching staff from the university…you can see this yourself".

Some examples of the situation involving infrastructure was at the Wa Campus where an uncompleted three story block for the District Assembly has been converted by the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies for use as lecturers offices and lecture halls. Another uncompleted Assembly Hall building said to be owned by the Regional House of Chiefs is currently used to hold mass lectures. A respondent stated:

"…the classrooms, I don't know whether you have been to our lecture hall, it is in a very bad state and does not auger well for academic work…A very large hall, at times if you have a lecture in the evening, the lighting system is bad, so it normally affect your delivery, and the numbers are too large especially if you take level 200 and level 100".

According to the 2004 Financial Statement, over 77% of the University's income comes from government subvention and up to 80 percent of the remaining 23 percent comes from user and registration fees from students. Conversely, it is suggested that about 58 percent of the University's annual budgetary proposals are met by government subvention, leaving it in a financial obscured position. However, many respondents estimated that up to 95% of the University financial resources come from central government. A senior academic stated:

"...We can not also make money from the NGOs who come to help us do our work that is why our financial situation is precarious. At present we depend solely on the government for funding, which is not even enough to meet our annual budget, this is really a serious problem...But we still must have to do something, a form of business".

According to most respondents, the tight financial situation of the University has negatively affected the delivery process, including infrastructure, equipment, transport etc; even though some stressed that despite that, they are putting up their very best, for example a respondent said:

"...that is why the question of adequate resources has always been an issue in almost every university in this country...I did my masters at Northampton and I can assure you that we did not get all the resources we need. So we are making efficient use of the limited resources we have here".

8.10 INTERPRETION

The above represents data from the University for Development Studies, which is aimed at helping answer the research questions set out in this study. Before proceeding to interpret the data, the meaning of the concept of development as used in the case of the University for Development Studies will be explored. The term development is a subjective and contestable concept that can assume different meanings in different contexts and in different times. In analysing the evolution of the concept, Coleman (1984) identified four possible principal meanings of development: a) an ethnocentric notion 'synonymous with

'Westernisation', b) economistic notion as 'economic growth', c) as the 'measurably amelioration of poverty, unemployment, and inequality under the rubric of 'the realisation of human personality'', and d) as a structural transformation from 'interdependence based on hierarchy' to 'interdependence based on symmetry and mutual accountability'. The type of developmental orientation pursued by the University for Development Studies may be situated in the third meaning of Coleman's typology where its vision and mission is directed towards solving the problem of poverty, enhancement of the general livelihood of deprived communities, and promotion of gender equity and national equity in development between Northern Ghana and the rest of the country. The mission is based on the assumption that Northern Ghana is the most underdeveloped area in Ghana characterised by abject poverty, environmental degradation and gender inequity.

Responses from the direct approach in which respondents were asked on their views about the place of service in the academic life of the university (whether it is a function apart from teaching and research) indicated that, in principle, respondents were quite familiar with the concept of service and saw it as a broader concept that covers not only research, teaching and learning but other activities such as community outreach activities. Many argued that the University stands for development; ensuring that formal teaching and learning activities are centred on the theoretical components of issues that are related to the development of the communities. Students then put this 'theoretical knowledge' into practice in real life situations during the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme. On the other hand, a small number of respondents argued against the view that all the core activities are service to the community. Major reasons were anchored generally on management bottlenecks, indicating tension and disagreements between managers and some specific groups suspected to be based on issues such as disciplinary (subject) and ethnic lines (as indicated in interview transcripts quoted above). Another important element of the responses worth noting is that although many agreed that all the core activities constituted service, it was acknowledged that the university faced resource constraints which could be understood to negatively affect the level of service offered by the various activities (as indicated in interview transcripts quoted above).

Putting all these views into perspective, four main issues seem to emerge:

1) University service to community could be viewed in three interrelated dimensions: staff teaching and research (as trainers and researchers); students training (learning and researching process); and students service in communities after training.

2) There seems to be a general familiarity, positive attitude and understanding of the policy direction of the University by almost all of the academics interviewed.

3) Although there is indication of general 'confidence' in the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme to deliver service to the community, there are signs of concerns about the usefulness of the programme and internal disagreements among the management team at one level and between the management and a section of the academia at another based mainly on disciplinary (subject) and ethnic lines.

4) Clear indication of resource constraints that cuts across all core activities, and reduces the model to the usual rhetoric.

To get a deeper and an implicit grasp of the place of service in the University for Development Studies' academic life, it may be essential to understand meaning of the concept in its context and a critical reflection on how this meaning translates to make sense in the light of the issues highlighted above. To the UDS, service means understanding the needs and challenges of the local communities in its catchment areas and making all university core activities reflect these needs both in principle and in practice; aimed at 'helping' the communities to overcome them. These means engaging the teaching curriculum and practices, research policy and activities, and all outreach policies and practices to address issues such as poverty, environmental degradation and low female participation in education. Located in a developing country, its priority is not to engage in market-driven or highly commercialised projects with its knowledge-based activities and resources like many universities in the Western world. UDS's service delivery may be organised into three interrelated dimensions:

a) Staff teaching and research (as trainers and researchers) which involves to some extent tailoring activities to address practical needs of its catchments areas.

b) Students training (learning and researching process) that involves classroom activities closely linked to community needs supported by field work in the community in the third trimester; an example of this is reflected in a statement from a respondent:

"Two of our passed students who currently work with a local developmental organisation conducted their field practical work in collaboration with a local community and the organisation which resulted in the development of a superb method of extracting oil from shea-nuts".

c) Students service in communities after training where they work with developmental organisations working in these areas. The first two dimensions fall within the scope of this research.

The University for Development Study's perspective of service could be equated to President Nyerere's view of an African University which should, as a matter of course, reflect the needs and aspirations of the populace. However, the question of how this has really worked in the UDS is a matter for debate. A general observation of the UDS seems to represent yet another example of the rhetoric of most universities in the developing world where 'lip service' and 'window dressing' have often been the order. Despite frantic efforts in moving its delivery beyond the usual policy rhetoric (passing irrelevant bulk of academic knowledge to students) to creating structures (classroom lectures and field practical work linked) in which an attempt is made to link theory to practice, the massive resource constraint the University is currently facing seem to be negatively impacting on the effectiveness and efficiency of delivery.

Secondly, the generally familiarity, understanding and positive attitude of the academics could be interpreted as a sign of awareness of the direction and responsibility of the university towards meeting the needs of its catchments areas. This feature may be an important prerequisite to any practical engagements to implement any institutional policy. However, could this just be one of the usually Ghanaian policy rhetoric or the usually solidarity and 'window dressing' of programme implementers to impress officials, important visitors and/or researchers? One argument could be that the overall positive attitude and understanding of the direction of the university by the academics could influence them to inaccurately assume that all the core activities constitute service. This could be possible as no university wide evaluation is done to determine the extent to which the activities impact on the community. However, if viewed based on the assumption that many contemporary universities juggle with so many things such that academics are unable to say exactly the policy directions of their institutions (as observed in the case of

Middlesex), the general awareness may indicate a genuine policy direction that the university community is aware and committed to achieving. Academics have sometimes used research occasions (research interviews) to express their stances on particular issues that affect their work, and adding to a situation in which they (academics) seem to be involved in the entire core activities, places this overwhelming views above any speculation, despite some few contrary views on service stated earlier. Although there has not been any major university wide evaluation of its programmes, there are no doubt that individual lecturers, departments and faculties have used different methods to evaluate their activities, as stated by a respondent:

"The other way is the impact on the community. If you give them some interventions and they continue using it and they come for more it means it is good...And of course, if funding agencies that have funded you come back to tell you that they want to work on the second phase of it with you or a new phase of what you have done show that it is good".

Although this form of evaluation may be useful in informing progress, there is no doubt about its questionable validity and effectiveness. Therefore, despite the evidence of the entire core academic activities playing as service, there may still be a case for developing cost effective, systematic and reliable ways through which the University activities are evaluated to ensure that it is really doing what it says it is doing.

Thirdly, there are indications of confidence in the TTFPP in delivering practical service to the community; for example a respondent stated:

"The third trimester fieldwork is the creative component of our work here; it makes us distinct from the other universities...and keeps us well closed to the local communities in the practical sense".

Similar claims have been made by majority of the respondents, which may be understood as a sign of the effectiveness of the TTFPP. However, issues may be raised about this when considered in the framework of a statement by a respondent which states:

"...as for the third trimester programme, the little said about it the better, more particularly in this faculty. It sometimes runs into total disarray...So no grounds for any evaluation to see its impacts on the community…but I understand it is flourishing well in other faculties because they listen to the foot soldiers".

This statement shows the variations in the way the TTFPP is organised and patronised. It is therefore, inaccurate to hold an inflexible view about the effectiveness of the programme. Furthermore, the effect of ethnic influences in the decision making process, as indicated in the data, may be an issue to question the claims of the effectiveness of the University's service to community; there may also be a case of whether these accusations were ethnically influenced or not. These are indeed complex issues which may require tact and perhaps a lengthy engagement to understand within the context. However, one clear message is that these disagreements signify that all is not going well despite the responses that show a general view of the academics about the place of service in the UDS's academic life. Could this simply indicate another example of the usual rhetoric in the making or reflects the reality underground? One explanation could be that these few individuals could be described as whistle blowers, bringing to the attention of the general public the lapses in the university. Related to this is that the top hierarchy seems to take and enforce decisions without adequately engaging in deliberation with all the academic groups and this is likely to lead to dissention and finally negatively affecting the University's operations. Another possible explanation, based on the researcher's experience of the context, is that many of the academics interviewed hail from ethnic groups outside Northern Ghana, which means they theoretically do not belong to any of the rivalry ethnics groups in the area, hence a possibility of being objective about the state of affairs. Although other analysis of this could result in new interpretations, the latter seems stronger. Again, in an ideal situation, there are generally bound to be disagreements on issues but the basis of any disagreement should be on valid and constructive criticism.

Finally, the general resource constrains mentioned by most of the respondents could be analysed to understand the place of service in the UDS's academic life. Admittedly, appropriate resources are important support to a university's core activities. Considering the fact that most respondents highlighted the lack of resources such as lecture halls and effective means of communication and transport could be interpreted to mean that the University's objective of using its knowledge resources to serve its catchments areas could be illusionary rather than real. This is illustrated in the field training programme in which students are sent to relatively limited number of communities due to lack of resources to support a large scale practice. The issue is not whether its activities are serving the communities or not but the extent to which the services reach the catchment areas. In general terms, the issue of the impact of interactions of the University community on the surrounding community may be difficult to determine as familiarity of the students and the University with the community may influence any attempt to find out the effectiveness of such interactions on their lives.

As the analysis above is based on only the issues that emerged from the data, the next set of analysis will be centred on UDS's policy perspectives, core activities, evaluation and resources that are thought to be essential in understanding the place of service in its academic life. Firstly, the data from the direct approach indicate that the concept of service is not a function of the University distinct from the teaching and research functions but a concept that covers the core activities. Despite this, the views expressed by academics are vague and require empirical evidence substantiate, which underlines the essence of analysing data from university policies and core activities.

The policy framework of the University, its mission and vision are very clear about its functions and roles. The policy directs that its main function should be to propel development in Northern Ghana and the nation as a whole. Northern Ghana, which is lagging behind the rest of the country, is beset with poverty, environmental degradation (e.g. bushfires), and low levels of participation in education. As a result, all the activities of the University are directed towards the resolution of these challenges impeding the development of the area, hence the motto: 'knowledge for service'. This policy perspective means that the overall function of the university is to serve its catchments communities; hence all activities, be it teaching and learning, research or outreach (community engagement and entrepreneurial), are directed towards addressing the problems in the society. Another policy related issue is the admission and participatory policy of the University. Apart from the policy initiative to admit more candidates from the catchments areas of the University, there is the Gender Mainstreaming Programme (GMP) which sought to deal with the problem of low female participation in higher education in Northern Ghana by admitting females from the catchments areas who obtain the minimum entering requirements, especially in the sciences. This is a clear policy geared towards serving the needs of the community, although in another respect may be seen as an infringement on equal opportunities for all. From a policy perspective, it may be logical to suggest that service is a wider concept that is used to reflect the academic life of the university.

Apart from this, an analysis of the themes of the academic portfolio of the University may also provide some relevant information for the purpose of this study. A quick glance of some of the titles of the academic faculties such as Applied Sciences and Integrated Development Studies and departments such as the Community Health and Nutrition (Medicine) and Economics and Extension (Agriculture) clearly show the applicability or 'mode two' nature of them. The titles indicate, to a limited extent, the service and utilitarian oriented nature of the faculties and programmes, exclusive of the likely nature of the delivery processes. Nevertheless, in some cases national policy objectives on tertiary education and objectives of programmes in universities may represent one thing and the nature of their delivery another; in other words the nature of an academic programme could reflect a utility or service orientation but due to lack of appropriate resources and will power may end up doing a different thing.

Understanding how the curricula of the academic programmes are formulated, delivered and evaluated could further throw some light into their nature and orientation. The objectives and scope of academic programmes of the University are anchored in its 'mandate' that stipulates that all programmes should reflect the developmental needs of the communities. This is why the teaching and learning process is divided into classroom activities and practical fieldwork. While the classroom activities involve understanding relevant concepts and theories, the practical fieldwork dubbed the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme involves the practical application of the theories and concepts in real life situations directed towards not only training the students to live and work in rural areas or communities but to contribute to the development process of such communities. This clearly shows that the practical process of the teaching and learning function of the University is geared towards serving the catchment communities. In the light of this, it is logical to suggest that service is not a function of the University in addition to teaching but a broader concept that covers the teaching function of the University. Despite this, some respondents (lecturers) have the view that some students do not take the practical fieldwork seriously and usually enrol into programmes simply to be awarded bachelor degrees after their studies without any intention to apply their knowledge in rural development. As stated in earlier chapters, the comparative nature of this study limited its scope to the core activities of the cases, hence, for the purpose of getting a true picture of the situation, research to determine the level and effects of students' participation in the fieldwork and the rate at which they live and work in deprived rural communities after completion of their studies could be useful to gain understanding of the situation.

Research activities are intertwined with teaching activities. Students TTFPP activities are forms of research activities that are geared towards identifying challenges in rural communities and initiating interventions to meet those challenges. Research activities of many academic staff members, especially those sponsored and connected to other higher education institutions in developed nations, are directed towards rural development; such research activities invariably point to service. However, some individual research activities might not necessarily be directed towards meeting specific challenges or solving specific problems in the society but may be basic and geared towards enhancing their publication portfolio; in such instances research may be viewed as a function different from the service function. This therefore, indicates the dynamics and politics involved; balancing between achieving individual academic laurels and institutional policy objectives. In reality, these overlap, interact and intertwine and lead to strengthening not only individuals' academic stance but the name of the institution.

Community engagement activities are traditionally seen by many as the service function of the university besides teaching and research and usually seen as devoid of any academic relationship or non-academic per se. However, the current context in which higher education now operates has promoted the blurring of these activities (community engagement and academic life – teaching and research). The case of the University for Development Studies is not different from this assertion; its community engagement activities cannot be defined as standing apart from the academic commitments and activities. This clearly indicates that, while community engagement, research and teaching activities may be seen as individual activities that are mutually related to achieve the mission and vision of the University, the case of service as an activity broadly refers to these activities that are geared collectively towards achieving the service mission of the University.

The resource-based at the University to some extent may demonstrate its perspective of service in relations to the other core activities. The location of its campuses within the catchments and close to the local communities could be indicative of the firmness of its objective to make all its activities reflect the needs of its community. The simple physical presence of the University in the community informs and reassures the people of its commitment to work with and ensure its development. Again, the location of the campuses, therefore, analytically points to the idea that the teaching and research activities reflect service. However, the lack of infrastructure and financial resources to pursue its mission objectives could give render it unachievable. Despite the pragmatic objectives and the positive attitude of academic staff to achieve its maiden objectives, the resources situation could be a source to negatively affect the rate and level of the integration of all the core activities towards serving the needs of the community. In some instances, this could end up separating the core activities into parallel entities.

8.11 CONCLUSION

The University for Development Studies is established on a paradigm that deviates from the conventional higher education delivery in the 'old' universities in Ghana. Its perspective is to use knowledge to serve the needs of its catchments, hence the motto: "Knowledge for Service". The institutional policy perspective directs that research, teaching and outreach activities should be designed such that they meet the developmental needs of its catchments communities. Some of the developmental needs of these local communities are basic scientific knowledge to enhance activities that support their livelihood such as farming, basic health care, small to medium scale businesses activities, and to discard 'undesirable' and 'retrogressive' cultural practices that impede the development and well being of the people. This form of interpretation of the concept here may be referred to as non-Western, which could have direct/indirect and rhetoric/non-rhetoric dimensions (this will be discussed in Chapter Nine). If institutional policy on research, teaching and outreach activities are geared towards these developmental needs, it means that the policy sees such activities as service to the people, in other words service to the needs of the people. Hence, it indicates that service is a broader concept that refers to all the core academic activities in the University. Despite this, the University is faced with problems of resources that could potentially affect the quality of its delivery.

In view of the nature of the University for Development Studies, it can be located within the political philosophy of higher education in which knowledge in the university is directed towards solving problems in the complex society. This is more socio-economically inclined, dealing with both the social and economic challenges in a moderate manner, rather than a more economically or entrepreneurially oriented as in the case of Middlesex University.

The case of the model of the UDS is context-driven, and hailed by many for the attention it gives to the needs of its constituencies. This is, in a very simple sense, the most appropriate way to enhance the communities, firstly, to establish a stable, reliable and environmentally friendly means of livelihood, and secondly, to catch up with the wide national discrepancy in development that exists between Northern Ghana and the rest of the country; the latter being arguably a narrow perspective of the purpose of higher education which would be discussed later in chapter ten. However, the dynamic and complex nature of the world today, which some refer to as 'globalisation', seems to be catching up with and affecting directly or indirectly every aspect of the lives of almost every community in every part of the globe, whether in the more developed or developing regions. These could be economic, political or the social spheres of their lives. How does or should the UDS model deal with the overwhelming challenge of creating a balance between the local and the global? Again, the utility-inclined orientation raises a number of questions related to critical thinking, the university and academic autonomy.

PART THREE

Part three is the final part and it covers chapters 9 and 10. A comparison is made of the findings from the two cases with an aim of understanding how contexts influence views of the place of service. It presents the summary of the findings of the research and discusses emerging service university models and a conceptual model.

CHAPTER 9: COMPARISON AND A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR SERVICE ENGAGEMENT OF UNIVERSITIES

9.1 INTRODUCTION

As shown in the last two chapters, the interpretation of data from Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies have demonstrated convergence; both data sets suggest that service is not a function of higher education distinct from teaching and research but seen as a broad concept that is used to refer to all the core activities (teaching and learning, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities). This therefore suggests that its position in the academic life of a university is not one of function relative to other core academic functions, such as teaching and research, but it is a broader concept that refers to the 'sum total' of the activities or functions of the university. Despite the convergence in the understanding and perception of the concept by the two cases, the nature and levels of perceptions and understandings differ because each of them is located in a different context that influences its mission, vision, objectives, mode of delivery and the resources that support it among other things. An understanding of these contextual differences and their influences could be important in enhancing a formulation of assumptions about service engagement of universities and a conceptual model of service in the university. The objective of this chapter is to compare and contrast contextual issues that have influenced the way each of the universities perceive service as reflected in their staff responses and their policies and modes of delivery. The main findings of the study will be summarised, and critically outline the various dimensions of the interpretation of the concept of service based on the evidence. In addition, a suggested conceptual model of service of the university will be presented based on discussions of the evidence from the two cases. Finally, discussion is presented on implication of the finding for academic freedom.

9.2 COMPARING MIDDLESEX AND UDS: DIFFERENT CONTEXTS - CONVERGING PERSPECTIVES

Which contextual factors influenced the understanding of the place of service in the academic lives in Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies? How are these factors similar or dissimilar and how do they influence the overall modes of delivery despite convergence in findings? The contexts in which the two universities operate are markedly different in terms of the levels of development: demography, economy, politics, technological advancement and in both national and local needs and aspirations. While United Kingdom is considered more developed and placed under the 'High Human Development' category, Ghana is considered as developing and found in the category of 'Medium Human Development' category (see UNDP, 2005). However, one significant relationship between the two contexts is that Ghana was colonised by Britain and, as a result, many of the national structures of Ghana still exhibit some characteristics of the influences left behind by the then British colonial power. Areas of influences include politics, education, the legal system and more specifically structures in university education as reflected in an earlier chapter on the context of the UDS.

9.2.1 National Perspectives and Aspirations

National perspectives and aspirations of each of the two cases influence their perspectives of considering service as a broader concept that covers all the core activities in the universities. In the United Kingdom, although national policies and perspectives on higher education seem to call for a holistic training of individuals in higher education institutions to be able to contribute to all areas of national life, more emphasis is put on making the system a source to strengthen the nation for global economic competitiveness and influence. This is reflected in national policy documents such as *The Dearing Report (1997)* and *The Future of Higher Education* (DfES, 2003) and comments and presentations by politicians (e.g. David Blunkett's contrast cited earlier on) and government officials. The national perspective is checked directly and/or indirectly practically by structures such as conditions set down for the allocation of government grants; national reports on the rate of employment of students after completion from institutions; league tables; and very recently the publication of the *Times Higher Education Supplement* of a list of academic millionaires, their spin-off companies and the higher education institutions they work. These structures put pressure on institutions to design their programmes and activities to reflect the national needs and aspirations to be able to survive financially (as well upgrade their ranking in league tables), thus developing the view that service is a concept that includes all its core activities. Similarly, national perspectives and policy documents such as the *Reforms to Tertiary Education* (GOG, 1991) and the *Vision 2020* document (GOG, 1995) on higher education in Ghana emphases on higher education reflecting national and local developmental needs. In addition, political leaders have also made calls for the system to reflect national developmental needs and aspiration. However, in many cases, the national policies and perspectives could be described as 'ceremonial' for various reasons: not enough structures are put in place to ensure that the national aspirations are reflected in the overall delivery of institutions partly due to lack of political will and limited resources. Despite this, these policies still influence the University's view of service as a broader concept which covers all its core activities.

The difference between the two cases lies in the fact that while in the United Kingdom national perspectives and aspirations are to some degree geared towards global economic competition, in the Ghanaian context, national perspectives and aspirations are focussed on national and local developmental needs and are more a rhetoric than a reality because there is the lurking lack of political will and resources to implement relevant policies. Although, strictly speaking, the question of national development, in some instances, could be applicable to both national contexts because at any one time every nation is in a process of development. The differences between countries may lie in the level and rate of their development progress.

9.2.2 University Community

Although in both cases service is seen as the overall core activities directed towards the communities of the institutions, the nature and scope of communities differ significantly. In the case of Middlesex University, it is one of many universities located in an urban modern city (London) with its first community expected to be the urban dwellers. In the urban area, it is not always the case that the locality of a university is necessarily its community in practice. The community of the University is not physically limited to only North London, London or the United Kingdom, but extends to cover the international arena, despite the fact that a substantial number of its students come from London and North London especially. The community is spatial and virtual, with a scope covering the local, national and international, influenced by national policies and perspectives (linked to global economic competition), its institutional objectives and the availability of advanced resources such as ICT and infrastructure to support. The catchments area of the University involves local, national, regional and international arenas and all its core activities are shaped to reflect these. The flexibility involved in what can be considered as the community of the University has partly contributed to its present population estimated at 25, 000 students. Hence, the impact of the needs of its diverse community on its core activities has influenced the university to see these activities as service, which is reflected in its policies and practices.

On the other hand, the community of the University for Development Studies is primarily Northern Ghana and then the country as a whole. Its catchments areas are specifically deprived local communities in Northern Ghana and the rest of the country; as such, its admissions policy, teaching and research activities and campuses locations reflect this. Most of its students come from the catchments areas, backed by a special admission policy that allow all females with the minimum entry requirements to be admitted as a way of tackling the under representation and low female participation in higher education in the area (although a form of positive discrimination, this disadvantages qualified male candidates and could put quality into jeopardy). The campuses of the University are located closed to the local communities and teaching and research activities are integrated to reflect local needs and aspirations. The communities of the University are more or less seen in the spatial rather than in the virtual sense, because the technological resources to support the virtual environment is still lacking or better put, in the developing stage. Its current student population is a little above 4900, comparatively about a sixth of that of Middlesex University. The specific scope of its community and other contextual issues such as the level and nature of its resource largely influences its student population. Nonetheless, the University community to some extent involves in some form of virtual interactions (not virtual community) especially between other collaborative partners in other countries through privately run internet resources. The nature of the University's community and the commitment it has towards it has influenced not only the academics but its policies and practices to view all its core activities as service, rather than just one of the functions of its functions.

9.2.3 Purpose and Nature of Core Activities

Furthermore, there is extensive interaction and integration of the core activities (teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities), which in totality are geared towards serving the needs and aspirations of communities in both institutions. Despite this, there are differences in the nature and process of these core activities influenced by the nature and characteristics of their contexts. At Middlesex University, the core activities are not done in the context of developing the underdeveloped but as means to advance its communities to meet the challenges of the global world, in some respect, to prepare them to meet the needs of the market. Although in some cases, academic programmes may be geared towards developing the underdeveloped communities elsewhere; there is a price tag on every activity. Most of the University programmes are structure to meet the needs of the students with an intention or purpose to recruit more fee-paying students, especially international students, in order to increase its institutional income. This situation is a result of the pressure on public higher education institutions in the United Kingdom to generate income from alternative sources to supplement the ever-increasing insufficiency of funding from state sources. Apart from designing academic programmes to attract students, the community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are business oriented, with the University setting up business enterprises and spin-offs to link its knowledge-based ideas and resources to businesses in the community to create wealth. In view of this, all core activities are seen as service activity, both in policy and in practice.

In the University for Development Studies, the case is different. Its communities are deprived and underdeveloped in several areas of life and its main objective is to propel development in these areas. The University's core activities are not business inclined. Students do not pay fees and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are not enterprise and business-oriented because of its pro-poor perspective and inclination. The academic programmes, research and community engagement activities are designed and structured in ways that meet the developmental needs of its communities. Despite the fact that resources are generally lacking, coupling with insufficient state subvention, it does not, at present, involved in any entrepreneurial activities. However, there is sufficient evidence that indicates that initiatives are underway to develop business enterprises. Nevertheless, the purpose of the core activities (development directed) has influenced academics, policies and practices of the University to view service as the sum total of all its core activities.

9.2.4 Resource – nature and organisation

Another area where there are sharp differences between Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies despite convergence in research results is the resource-base. As results of differences in their individual contexts that have led to differences in institutional objectives, modes of delivery and communities, the nature and organisation of resources used in their operations also differ in many ways. The nature and organisation of resources reflect their understanding of the position of service in the academic life of their institutions. As a University established by and located in a more developed nation like the United Kingdom, the nature of Middlesex University resources reflect this in a number of ways in comparative sense. Based on its intention to direct its core activities towards serving the needs of its communities both at the spatial and virtual levels, the nature of physical resources are such that they can support delivery at these levels. Physical resources such as infrastructure (lecture halls, laboratories); ICT support equipment (computers, Internet etc) and library resources (physical and electronic) are designed to support teaching and learning, research and outreach activities. The establishment of campuses in foreign countries (Dubai) is also a form of organisation of its resources to be able to serve its communities. The fact that all the core activities take place in the campuses indicates that they are delivered as services to the communities. Some characteristics of the human resource-based also indicate service. The creation of the positions of Directors of Business Developments to create business opportunities through linking the academia to businesses is one example. The challenging financial situation of the University and the need to establish a cost-effective and efficient delivery regime are the major driving forces leading the University to embark on different rationalisation initiatives and restructuring the entire delivery process.

Compared to the University for Development Studies, which is located in a developing country like Ghana, the resource-bases differ and reflect their contexts. The University is currently experiencing shortages of physical resources such as lecture rooms and well-equipped laboratories in some of its campuses. Apart from this, some faculties such as the Medicine and Health Science need well equipped laboratories and teaching hospital, although the situations in other faculties are under control. The state of resource-constrain the University is currently going through has limited its scope of organising resources to enhance its delivery. However, the location of its campuses close to the rural communities (target groups) is a characteristic that demonstrates the University's commitment to ensure that its core activities are closely related to and reflect the practical needs of communities. It could be seen as a strategy to enhance or support the realisation of its objective by directing all its core activities towards serving the needs of these communities, hence indicating that all core activities are viewed as service.

9.2.5 Competition

Apart from this, the service of each university is influenced to some degree by the nature and level of competitiveness among higher education institutions in the environment in which it finds itself. For instance, Middlesex University operates in an environment laden with different forms of competition such as competitions to enrol more students, funding from research councils, a good place on the league tables, government projects, foundation projects and a host of others. In the United Kingdom, challenges to access and participation in higher education is not due to limited places but may be to other issues related to choice, social class and/or race. Almost all mainstream universities (post 1992 universities) such as Middlesex University are constantly under pressure to meet their annual admission quotas, which has resulted in many of them adopting the practice of admitting students twice in every academic year (September and January). To enrol more students, therefore, institutions are pushed into listening to and paying more attention to the needs and expectations of potential students and more particularly to current areas of 'hot' demand by society. Middlesex is also under pressure to structure and conduct its activities appropriately within some sort of regulatory guidelines in order to stand a stronger chance for competing for funds through the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) and other government and foundation sources and League Tables. These challenging issues have tended to influence the University to understand its service role as the 'sum total' of all its core activities.

Unlike Middlesex University, the University for Development Studies' view on the position of service is less influenced by competition among higher education institutions in its natural environment. In any case, the idea of competition among higher education institutions seems not to openly exist, even if it does, it is only at the fringes of inter-university debating contests and similar other activities such as sports. So, higher education institutions seem not to be fully held to account. As mentioned earlier in this study, the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) acts on behalf of central government to allocate funds to universities. The allocation is based on the number of students in an institution, which is more or less influenced by the capacity of a university (availability of resources) to admit more students. In the 2004/2005 academic year, UDS was able to admit only 58 percent (representing 71 percent males and 29 percent females) of qualified applicants due to lack of resources. Similarly, the allocation of the Teaching and Learning Innovation Fund (TALIF) is not based on the 'best' but based on need and other related issues. The likely competitive area for the UDS in its context that could analytically be seen as influencing its perspective of service as a concept that covers all its core activities is its attempt to make its operation different from the old universities. It has always tried to link all its activities to the local communities to disprove its detractors such as professional organisations (The Ghana Medical Association) who hold a firm view that the model is bound for failure, and that it is only a matter of time.

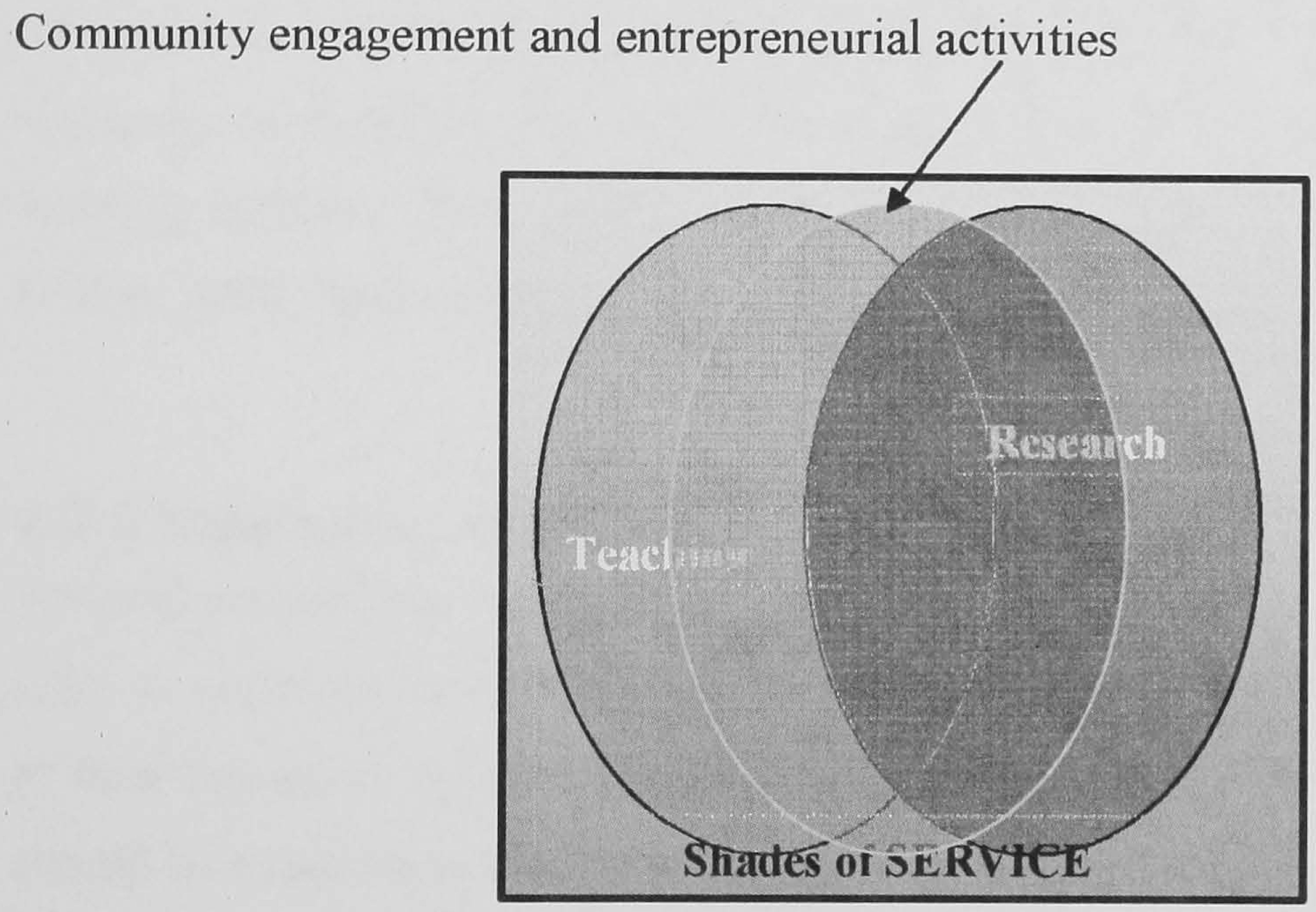
From the on-going, it is clear that despite the convergence in the views by both universities that service is a concept whose scope covers the entire core activities, contextual factors that have influenced this view differ considerably. This indicates that service in the university is complex, difficult to pin down as one of many functions and may represent an integrated whole. However, the view that service is a function of the university besides teaching and research may be an over-statement of the current situation in which universities are becoming more utility-oriented, directing all the core activities towards problem solving.

9.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this section is to assemble the findings (in a summarised form) based on evidences from the entire data sources: interviews, documents (publications, journals, national, local and institutional documents) and physical artefacts. The findings suggest that service could be viewed as a concept that covers all the core activities of the university, rather being one of three functions of the university.

This is based on evidence that suggests that service is a broad concept that covers all the core activities of the university rather than an 'emerging' function of higher education besides teaching and research. The core activities (teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities) of the university are interrelated and overlapped in complex ways to provide service (figure 9.1), both in terms of policy and practice. The entire activities may provide different shades of service depending on the philosophy on which an institution operates which in turn is influenced by the its context (detail analysis in figure 10.2). This finding does not presupposes that traditional modes of delivery and basic research no longer exist in universities, they do and are carried out in different dimensions; however, more emphasis seems to be put on the utilitarian aspects of the core activities.

Figure 9.1: Shades of Service in the University Activities (originated from this study)



9.3.1 Direct responses from respondents:

Most of the respondents in each university think that service is a concept that represents the entire core activities of teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities. However, such assertions can be vague and require further information to ascertain their credibility, hence the examination of universities' core activities.

9.3.2 New assumption about higher education:

New assumptions on current delivery in higher education suggest several features that indicate the integrated nature of higher education delivery towards service. One of such relevant theses is the 'Mode 2 Knowledge Production' (Gibbons et al, 1994). The authors of the 'Mode 2 Knowledge' thesis argue that there is a fundamental change in the way knowledge is produced. This is explained based on conventional methods of knowledge production (Mode 1) in which knowledge is produced within a framework of methods, values and norms that guide scientific research. In Mode 2, the production of knowledge is carried out in the context of application in which it is trans-disciplinary, problem-centred, heterogeneous, socially accountable and reflexive in nature. Although this assumption is based on socio-political analysis, it demonstrates the extent to which universities core activities integrate to co-mingle with its context, in other words shows how the core activities of the university are carried out to reflect the needs and aspiration of its context. Hence, all core activities may function as services to society. Research activities are not discipline centred, but problem-centred, carried out in multiple locations (not limited to the university as an entity) and within the scope of what can be termed outreach, teaching, and learning activities. Nevertheless, some scholars criticise the claim of the 'mode 2' thesis (Fuller, 2000; Pestre, 2003)

9.3.3 National perspectives

National perspectives and policies on higher education in the United Kingdom and in Ghana seem to emphasis the idea of making higher education relevant to the needs and aspirations of their respective nations. The academic teaching programmes and research in particular should be sensitive to the national agenda for progress, whether in the sense of enhancing national competitiveness in the global economy or 'development as a measurable amelioration of poverty, unemployment, and inequality under the rubric of the realisation of human personality' (Coleman, 1984). Critical analyses of national documents on higher education such as *The Dearing Report (1997)* and *The Future of Higher Education* (DfES, 2003) in the United Kingdom, and *Reforms to Tertiary Education* (GOG, 1991) and the *Vision 2020* document (GOG, 1995) in Ghana reveal the utilitarian orientation of these perspectives. Hence, these national policy perspectives could be interpreted to mean an encouragement of university core activities towards service in a policy sense; while also acknowledging that the reflection of these perspectives in the actual university activities could be another issue depending on the will power of university authorities and the availability of resources and incentives to implement them.

9.3.4 Institutional mission statements

The mission statements of both Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies have explicitly expressed their orientations to ensuring that all their core activities are geared towards serving the needs and expectations of their communities. As such, policies regarding research, teaching and learning, and community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are influenced by the missions to move towards service orientation.

9.3.5 Teaching and learning and research activities

On the basis of institutional missions and policies, teaching and learning activity viewed from its objectives, formulation of curricular, through to the delivery and evaluation of programme performance are more or less based on criterion favourable to the needs and expectations of major stakeholders such as students, industry, the state etc. Similarly, the formulation of research agendas, methods of conducting research, evaluation of research seem to be influenced by the interests of the stakeholders, which has made the research activity service oriented. Despite this, research and publication seem to be influenced by the promotion agenda, which academics stated as one of the reasons for publications.

9.3.6 Community engagement and entrepreneurial activities

Community engagement and entrepreneurial activities are traditionally viewed as the service wing of the university, which includes voluntary and non-voluntary, academic and non-academic activities. The growing attention to and expansion of this wing in many universities around the world could be attributed to the growing feeling and assumption by some that it is the third function of the university. However, it is pertinent to emphasis that these activities have existed and operated not in isolation from the core academic activities of research and teaching but as an integrated activity. The current context of higher education delivery characterised by reduce state funding (in real terms), massification of higher education, high cost of delivery, emerging competitors in higher education delivery, growing links with industry among other things has turned the attention of universities to explicitly link all the core activities to provide service to meet the challenges of the times. The links between community engagement and entrepreneurial activities, and the core academic activities of teaching and research seem to have become complex and blurred with a combined objective of working towards meeting the needs of stakeholders such as industry and the state. This is more particularly so in the case of the UDS: demonstrated by the classroom academic work and the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme based mainly on students' work. At Middlesex University, in most cases (undergraduate level) teaching and research operate on parallel plains, but more blurred in the expanding work based learning programmes.

9.3.7 Resources

The nature and organisation of some main resources in the universities is another source through which the views of the universities about the place of service in academic life can be understood. Contextual dynamics (national and local status – more developed or developing, rich or poor etc), to some extent, determine the state of a university's resources, and within these available resources, the modification and organisation of some of the resources is influenced by their intended use. Taking the nature and organisation of some human and material resources at Middlesex University to the fore, the appointment of directors for business development to link the academic activities to business and industry signifies the University's view of such activities as service. Apart from this, the citing of university campus in Dubai to expand the University's delivery activities (teaching, research and entrepreneurial activities) is an indication that these activities are services rendered to its 'clients' in a foreign country. Although the University for Development Studies has some limited resources in comparable sense, the location of its campuses close to the local communities is an indication of its intention of directing all its core activities towards serving the needs of its catchments areas.

9.4 DIMENSIONS OF INTERPRETATIONS OF THE CONCEPT OF SERVICE

In chapter four, the various dimensions of service was discussed from the point of literature mainly based to a very large extent on 'western' perspectives. The discussion of the different dimensions of interpretation of the service concept here is based on the evidence from the fieldwork. This would be discussed within the socio-cultural, economic and technological contexts of the cases under the headings: 'Western/non-Western', 'Direct/Indirect', 'Public/Private' and 'Rhetoric/non-Rhetoric'.

9.4.1 Western/non-Western dimension

The term 'western' can have different meanings depending on the context in which it is used, for example, it could simply refer to a position or place relatively west, or in the Ghanaian context one of the ten administrative regions located at the South-western corner of Ghana (Western region). However, in a more general sense the term is used to refer to countries in Western Europe, the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, more associated with democracy, stable governments, strong national economies and technological advancement (Thompson and Hickey, 2005). However, if the understanding of the term is to be strictly based on the characteristics outlined above, it could be problematic and misleading; for example Japan seems to have all the characteristics but not classified under Western countries. Notwithstanding this, in this study, the use of the term 'Western' is akin to the general understanding stated above, of which Middlesex's context is and example characterised by its democratic ideals, strong national economy (becoming a market/service economy), advanced educational system with high and increasing levels of access, participation at various levels, low poverty rate, and high experience and engagement with technological. This is summarised as a 'developed' context.

Middlesex University is located and operates within the Western context; its interpretation of the concept of service could therefore be understood as one of the Western interpretations of the concept. Firstly, the word 'service' is not used directly as it reads, but different phrases such as 'meeting the needs', 'interaction with business' and 'increasing student numbers' are used to express the concept although the bulk of the literature on the concept emanates from Western writers, for example Cummings (1998, 1999) and Macfarlane (2005). The data showed a variety of interpretation by academics covering voluntary activities such as volunteering work by students; using academic programmes to meet the 'supposed needs' of students and organisations; conducting research that is of high quality – fit for entry for RAE, and as a matter of perpetuating history. However, the underlying dimension of the interpretation is financial, that is, increasing the number of fee paying students through the designing of programmes that appeal to students and show future job prospects; involvment in research projects that can earn the University prestige and income; and partnering with business organisation in areas such as CPD. Service within the Western context seems to be a matter of financial survival but not an obligation, in other words the University is not forced to do what it does but it needs to do it in order to guarantee its existence (financial sustainability) by any means within the framework of its activities. For instance, strive by Middlesex University to meet its enrolment and progression target is to enable it to reduce its budget deficits and financially sustain its activities but not to necessarily meet the government higher education policy targets. This is illustrated in the following response from an academic cited in chapter seven:

"...although all these mechanisms exist to evaluate the programmes and activities, the most important thing, perhaps, is the sustainability of student numbers...once student numbers keep on increasing, it is an indication of successful programme... admittedly, we are under enormous pressure to generate more funds from our activities".

From the point of view of literature emanating from Western sources, service of the university is interpreted differently by different academics, for example, interpreted as customer service, collegial virtue, civic duty and integrated learning (Hatfield, 1989; Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; MacFarlane, 2005). However, most articulate seems to be the interpretation that views services as "the delivery, installation, and maintenance of knowledge-based applications to clients wherever they may be" (Cummings, 1997), analysed from the standpoint of current challenges of universities. This could be an overstatement in that although almost every higher education institution is acknowledged to be concerned about tailoring its knowledge-based resources towards income generation, there are still service activities within universities that are non-commercial, for example volunteering work as illustrated by a respondent at Middlesex University:

"...the answer to this would depend on one's understanding of the term...service means different things in different contexts...for me, this refers to the voluntary work the University offers to the public, when I say the University I refer to the whole university community – lecturers, students and so on [when asked for an example] for instance, our membership of the Enfield Strategic Partnership Programme is one example, we provide, offer some expertise or if you like consultancy work to the partnership, a partnership comprising of all organisations in the borough"

Another characteristic of the Western dimension of the concept of service is its 'unrestricted' target communities; service activities are aimed at diverse groups and needs at the local, national and international levels. This is reflected in Middlesex University's corporate plan which states:

'Middlesex University aims to be a global university committed to meeting the needs and ambitions of a culturally and internationally diverse range of students by providing challenging academic programmes underpinned by innovative research, scholarship and professional practice.'

Several academics also highlighted this during the interviews, some examples are:

"...related to this is the vision of the school;...we work towards becoming a leading centre in the delivery of challenging business management and allied programmes to diverse students and clients who contribute in business and the community".

"...what I mean by creating and maintaining balance excellence in teaching and research is that we take both teaching and research very seriously, we give equal attention to both, we also step up our interaction with industry...and we aim at increasing student numbers at the undergraduate and graduate levels, at home and internationally."

"...students in this school come from diverse backgrounds in terms of social class, ethnicity and nationality; we have many international students"

The interpretation of the concept based on the empirical information from the fieldwork suggests that Middlesex operates as a 'non-traditional' higher education institution characterised by activities that serve diverse clienteles (Grant and Riesman, 1978).

On the other hand, the term 'Non-Western', if strictly interpreted could be viewed as the opposite of Western, which is Eastern or Oriental belonging to the east of Europe (countries lying to the east of the Mediterranean, for example Poland, Russia and Romania). In the context of this study, the term refers to 'developing countries' which are characterised by fragile and unstable democratic ideals, weak national economies (depending much on natural resources), formal education system still at the basics with relatively low participation in higher education, high poverty rate and low level of technological acquaintance. A typical example of a non-Western interpretation of the concept of service in higher education is the statement by a former President Nyerere of Tanzania in 1966 which reads in part:

"...The role of the university in a developing country is to contribute; to give ideas, manpower, and service for the furtherance of human quality, human dignity and human development."

For the purpose of this study, Ghana would be classified under the non-Western context due to the nature of the socio-cultural, political and economic features that reflect it (as stated earlier in chapter six). Hence, the interpretation of the concept of service within the context of UDS could be viewed as the non-Western dimension of it. In this context, service means engaging the teaching, research and outreach activities of the university towards addressing issues affecting its community, example of these are poverty, environmental degradation and low female participation; with little or no expectation of economic or financial return directly to the University. The culture of tailoring all academic activities towards a form of economic recoup for the university is not a popular one among public universities in Ghana; this is why there is almost a hundred percent dependency on state subvention and student registration fees across board. The UDS clearly states its stance on this as illustrated from the following quote from a respondent:

"The main partners of this University are the deprived communities; we cannot make money out of them. We can not also make money from the NGOs who come to help us do our work, that is why our financial situation is precarious...But we still must have to do something, a form of business".

Despite this, there has always been the usual rhetoric of public universities and government policies unveiling strategies to make institutions generate funds to supplement insufficient government financial support; this is reflected in the last sentence of the quote above ('But we still must have to do something, a form of business'), also from the example stated earlier in chapter eight about the proposal of the Department of Horticulture in the Faculty of Agriculture to start commercial activities such as quality vegetable seed production and distribution.

Furthermore, a dimension of interpretation of the concept of service in the non-Western context is the scope of service beneficiaries or communities. Service is usually limited to the immediate local communities and the nation as a whole, as such the scope of service activities are situated within the socio-cultural and economic experience of the catchments, this is why students in public universities in Ghana do not pay tuition fees, often associated with the argument that introduction of tuition fees could prevent a high number of the populace from attaining university level qualifications (due to high levels of poverty). The content and emphases of service are more often based on basic issues such as training students or conducting research in a way that would help communities to adapt to appropriate healthy lifestyles to improve the quality of their lives, the environment and to involve in small to medium scale business activities. This is as far as data from the UDS is concerned. However, within the mainstream public universities in Ghana, higher education delivery remains academic oriented and examination driven, conceived as an attribute of quality in the 'Western' sense. Hence, to discuss the non-Western concept of service of the university is likely to end up with more questions than answers, especially if analysed from the Ghanaian experienced and that of the UDS in particular.

Historically, the origins of the concept of university is the 'West', introduced into Ghana (the then Gold Coast) in the late 1940s through colonisation and operated within the British framework and understanding. As discussed in chapter four, medieval universities did not operate in a vacuum but served different professions, the Church and later the Enlightenment. The idea of making university education reflect the needs and aspiration of the Ghanaian context is therefore, 'revolutionary' and 'nationalistic'; perhaps understood as attempts to rethink the function of the university. But to what extent has this objective been achieved? The colonial legacy is still reflected in university education in Ghana, even though local factors have influenced it to a large extent since independence in 1957. To sum up, although the idea of the university and its use to serve the needs of society is Western in its entirety and origin, its introduction into non-Western countries has no doubt undergone transformation influencing and being influenced. The interpretations of the concept of service at Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies present a contrast on how contextual dynamics could affect and influence their service roles. However, practices such as service learning (US colleges, and discussed in Chapter Four) and the TTFPP (UDS) indicate a level of similarities between the Western and non-Western interpretations (in some respect).

9.4.2 Public/Private dimension

Generally, universities could be seen as public or private; however, the discussion here is limited to the public-private dimension of the service concept in public universities citing examples from Middlesex University and University for Development Studies as cases. Public universities are charities and non-profit making institutions that are funded mainly by central government. Despite being public universities, service at Middlesex and UDS have public and private dimensions. The public element of service of a university may be referred to as the aspects of its core activities that are directed towards the public good, for example reflecting national policies. At Middlesex University the pursuance of the policy of widening participation is an example of the public component of its service. It is a major policy of the Higher Education Funding Council of England (HEFCE) aimed at promoting and providing opportunity to everyone who can benefit from it as a way of promoting social justice and economic competitiveness. The University's involvement in this through the use of both conventional and non-conventional admission procedures such as work based learning illustrates the aspect of its public service component. Other examples include working with its local boroughs such as the Boroughs of Enfield and Barnet, and student and staff volunteering work in communities. The public service dimension could be voluntary-oriented or market-oriented; the market component is becoming crucial. At the UDS, the public aspect of service overshadows almost every dimension of its service; this is demonstrated in the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP). As discussed in chapter eight, the core activities are planned and implemented taking into consideration the benefits to be derived by its communities, even though there are aspects such as examinations that operate within the traditional remit. Another aspect though could be controversial, is the policy that is aimed at promoting female participation in higher education through the admission of all female applicants who possess the minimum entry requirements. Female participation in university education in Northern Ghana is generally very low as compared to their male counterparts; the University views this as a problem in the society requiring attention. Hence, the policy could be seen as a kind of service to the public.

The private dimension of the concept of service may be explained as university core activities that are directed to private individuals or organisations mainly for financial rewards. This is reflected in Middlesex University's admission of international fee paying students from countries such as China and the opening of campuses and offices in countries such as Dubai and Malaysia. The partnership with business such as Marks and Spencer in areas as continuous profession development (CPD), establishment of business enterprises such as Middlesex University Innovation to link its core academic activities of teaching and research to potential businesses are all examples that illustrate the private dimension of its service delivery. The private component of the service at University for Development Studies is however very limited to academics private consultancy work to private and non-governmental organisations. However, there are indications of its plans to involve in business services as stated earlier.

9.4.3 Direct/Indirect dimension

Closely linked to the public/private dimension is the direct/indirect dimension of the interpretation of the concept. The direct aspect of service involves the core activities of university tailored towards helping provide specific needs to beneficiaries or partners (public or private), for example conducting an action research project that solves a particular problem in a university's catchments community or creating a computer software to enhance the accounting system of a business organisation. This is illustrated in the core activities of Middlesex through students volunteering activities such as working for charities and serving as mentors in local primary schools (Raynham Primary School in Edmonton Green – North London) and academics voluntary consulting work for local organisations such as Enfield Strategic Partnerships cited earlier in Chapter Seven. According to the data, up to sixty percent of the University's newly trained teachers are posted to schools in the North London area, which is another example of direct service. In the case of University for Development Studies, direct service is exemplified by the research projects that touch on the basic needs of its community, for example the research project titled 'Community involvement in Waste Management and Sanitation in Navrongo Township' in the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies. Environmental degradation is considered by government as a major problem in Northern Ghana; hence conducting research in this area to help solve the problem could be viewed as a direct service to the community. The indirect component is those activities that do not directly influence or applied to any specific needs of community, but has the potentials of serving the needs of clients, for example at Middlesex University, many of the programmes are traditional, run as a matter of course, which do not necessarily reflect any specific needs (Philosophy), although analysed from the point of national policy and students, could assume a direct form of service. At University for

Development Studies, indirect service could be understood if analysed from the point of view of students as learners or trainees where there are equipped with the necessary skills, values and attitudes to work in the communities after completion. Acknowledgeably, the direct-indirect dimension could be complex; assuming different interpretations and meanings depending on the context (place, time, and objective) and the stand-point from which it is analysed and used.

9.4.4 Rhetoric/non-Rhetoric dimension

According to an online Oxford English Dictionary the term 'rhetoric' is defined as "Speech or writing express in terms calculated to persuade; ..., language characterised by ostentatious expression." The rhetoric/non-rhetoric dimension of the interpretation entails the extent to which the use of the concept in writing (in policy documents) and/or in speech matches its application in the real situation. The rhetoric of the Corporate Plan of Middlesex University is that it is ostentatiously presented to attract home and international students mainly for the fees they would bring to the University and not necessarily for the excellent experience promised to students. For instance, the Corporate Plan states:

"Middlesex University aims to be a global university committed to meeting the needs and ambitions of a culturally and internationally diverse range of students by providing challenging academic programmes underpinned by innovative research, scholarship and professional practice."
(Middlesex University, 2005a: 6)

The statement represents a common characteristic and rhetoric of mission statements of higher education institutions, particularly in the Western context, which is used as a marketing tool to recruit students. Furthermore, the reality is that many of the academic programmes and professional practices of academic staff of the University are not different from the conventional programmes and practices in other universities, therefore it may be hard to figure out how the University is providing 'challenging academic programmes underpinned by innovative research, scholarship and professional practice'. The rhetoric in this case seems to be influenced by the University's context which is characterised by an intense competition to attract students and the pressure to generate more money to run its affairs. Hence, they are forced to use this strategy to achieve their intrinsic objective. The concept of service is therefore used and interpreted as a tool or strategy to achieve university financial agenda rather than to serve its clients. In the case of University for Development Studies the mission statement is not different from any other university mission statement; it is eloquent and persuasive in sending a clear message of what the university is about. This well-expressed service orientation can be understood in its mission statement when it states its vision as:

"to blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of Northern Ghana, in particular, and the country as a whole".

To what extend has the interaction being constructive and effective in bringing about a total development of Northern Ghana and Ghana as a whole? Although the delivery strategies used seem to demonstrate contact with the University catchment communities, it cannot possibly claim to bring 'total development' especially when the scope of the term 'development' makes it difficult to state whether there is 'total development' or not, or to achieve total development per se. Apart from this, the lack of resources to support its operations has limited its activities to the periphery, reducing the mission objectives to mere expressions. In addition, experiences of post-independence educational policies in Ghana has proven to be rhetoric than reality. The objective of making university education serve the developmental needs of the country since its independence is still something yet to be achieved; partly because university education is still academic oriented and quality is judged within this parameter.

Notwithstanding the above discussion, there is the non-rhetorical dimension of the interpretation of the concept of service in both cases. This involves modest and unpretentious activities that serve the needs of respective catchments communities. Middlesex University's activities such as work based learning programmes that reach out to professionals to recognise and upgrade their learning experiences, collaborative research projects with local councils and volunteering work by student and academic staff are examples of practical service activities that move beyond rhetoric (although the existence of hidden objectives such as prestige and monetary gain cannot be ruled out). Non-rhetorical service activities in the University for Development Studies may be illustrated in the efforts made to link its academic programmes to the needs of its targeted communities through the establishment of the Third Trimester Fieldwork Practical Programme that makes it mandatory for students to spend the entire trimester in the local communities to discuss, identify development challenges and design strategies to meet them despite resource constraints is an example of the non-rhetoric element of its service.

Reflecting on the dimension of interpretation of the concept of service in the two cases representing the developed and developing contexts, there are indications that the concept is complex and multifaceted both in its conceptualisation and practice across a wide range of contexts. There is also evidence that even in the developed world, interpretation is not limited to 'blue sky' technological involvement with high level business enterprises, but influenced to a large degree by the contextual dynamics of the university, especially were universities are classified as old/traditional and new/non-traditional that define their involvement with mainstream society. This is in contrast to assumptions of university service as market-orient that targets high level knowledge-based clients. It also shows that interpretation is also very much influenced by contexts and analytical positions as can be seen from the cases of Middlesex University and University for Development Studies.

9.5 A CONCEPTUAL FRAME FOR SERVICE ENGAGEMENT IN THE UNIVERSITY

This conceptual frame (see figure 9.2) is based on the findings of this research and it is directed towards concretely visualising the state of coherence of service engagement to relevant spheres such as a university's context, philosophies of higher education, core activities of the university and the models of contemporary universities discussed in chapter four (Developmental University, Entrepreneurial University [Non-traditional University] and For-Profit Higher Education Institutions). The paradigms on which all universities operate may be viewed from three overlapping philosophical underpinnings: epistemological, political and pluralistic (see chapters two and four). Every university operates in a context and it is defined by this context in terms of what specific functions it is expected to perform, which invariably determines to a large extent its philosophical underpinning. Middlesex University's context defines it as a 'mainstream university' (Post-1992 University) that is expected to work closely with industry and serve its local communities. This is an advanced Western context that is characterised by a free market system, competition, accountability and an emerging knowledge society. Hence, the

University operates under the political philosophy (seen figure 9.2 below) that views university education as a means to solve problems of the complex world. This is why this is reflected in its corporate plan and to some extent in its activities, whether bound up in rhetoric or non-rhetoric. Arguments for programme validations are mainly based on demand; and value for money criteria used alongside a so-called quality element, influenced to some extent on level of patronage by students. Research is directed towards some financial gains, particularly the Research Assessment Exercise. These characteristics make it an Entrepreneurial University based on the non-traditional model (universities could be entrepreneurial but operate as a traditional university, for example University of Oxford is a traditional university that is involved in a wide range of business oriented activities with its teaching and research).

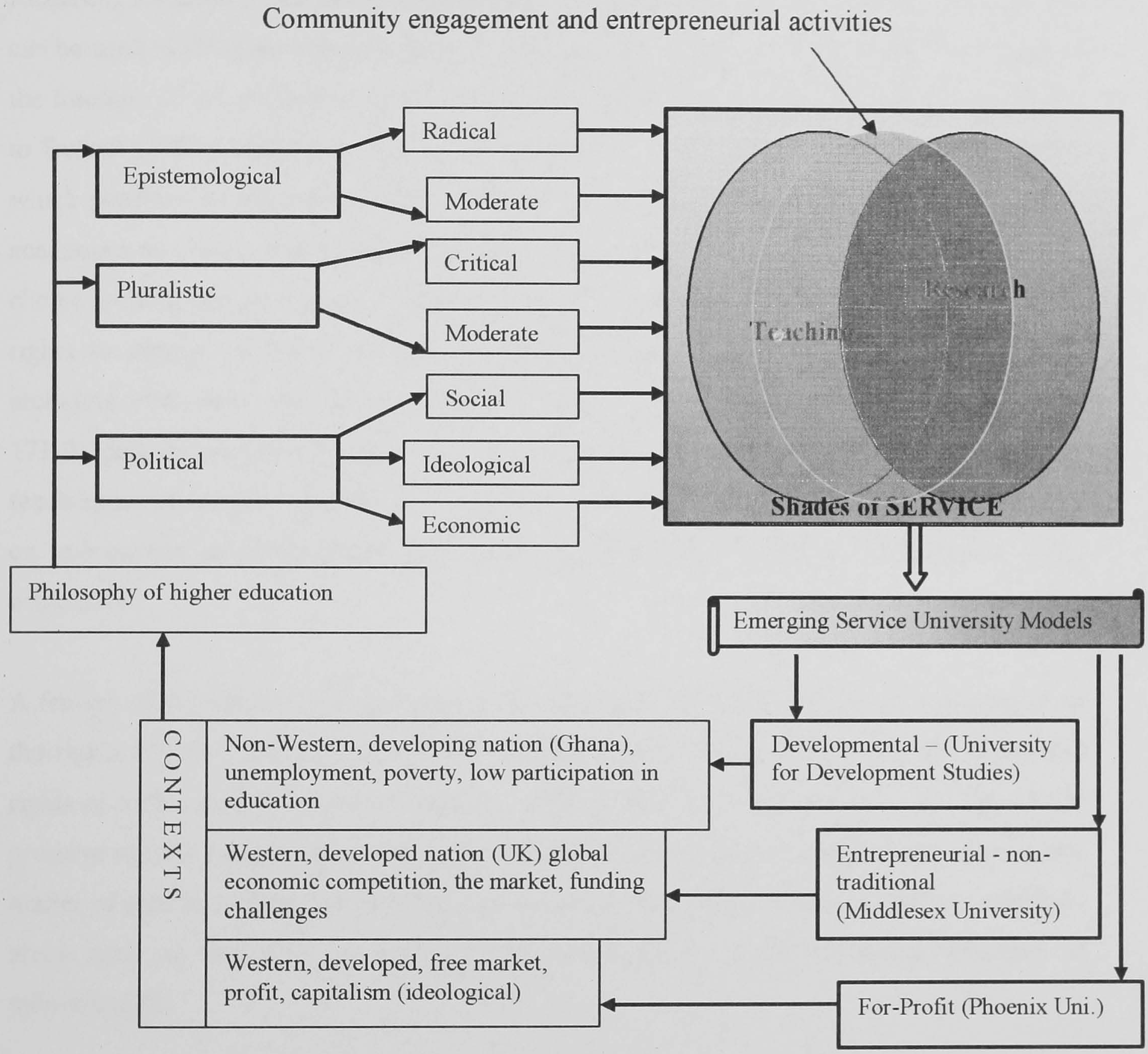
On the other hand, the University for Development Studies operates in a developing context (non-Western) with distinguishing features such as underdevelopment, high poverty rate, low rate of access and participation in education particularly higher education, and subsistent agricultural practices. The University's objective is to work towards resolving these problems related to underdevelopment by ensuring that its delivery process is linked to the needs of the catchment communities. As such, its philosophical underpinning could be analysed as political, seeing itself as an engine to propel development, serving the needs of its community. Against this backdrop, University for Development Studies could be categorised as a Development University (see figure 9.2).

A general discussion of the service model of higher education based on figure 9.2 could be important. The philosophical orientation of each university influences the nature and type of the service it delivers, for example, universities that are inclined to a radical economic-based political philosophy (see figure 2.1 in chapter two) will have their core activities structured and delivered radically towards economic rewards which is likely to develop into a service university model called a *For-Profit* higher education institution. Such institutions are usually private and their policies and practices are profit-oriented, customer-sensitive and target-driven, and could appropriately be classified under Tjeldvoll's (1998) *Service University Supermarket* (see chapter four). These kinds of institutions develop and strive well in advanced capitalist environments where there is a free market and rigorous competition; an example of such an environment is the United States where there are over two hundred of such institutions. Similarly, universities that are inclined to a moderate economic political philosophy are likely to direct aspects of their activities towards the market while still maintaining circumspection about allowing the market to take control. Such universities are usually public, operating in a context where there are funding challenges and characterised by increased partnership and cooperation with industry and government for example. Depending on the magnitude and dimension at which delivery proceeds, such universities could be entrepreneurial universities (traditional/non-traditional), an academic service university or a degenerated service university (see chapter four).

Furthermore, a university could be a developmental university if it operates within the political philosophy with an orientation that is geared towards developing the socio-economic well being of a developing society laden with challenges such as poverty and low participation in education. Developmental universities could operate in different ways depending on the area it emphasises; it could develop into an academic service or a degenerated service university. The entrepreneurial and developmental service university models can operate within the critical pluralistic philosophy if they are involved in critical academic scholarship while at the same time making it relevant to society.

Furthermore, the conceptual model can be used to conduct analysis in different contexts, for example, universities in the former Soviet Union, which were controlled by state could be categorised within the political philosophy but ideologically inclined to serve the political machinery of the state. Likewise, research universities could be located in either the epistemological or political range depending on the nature of research, that is, whether emphasis is placed on basic or applied research. Although, there are still research-oriented or research-led universities, it may be difficult at this time to identify a university institution that operates within the pure epistemological philosophy. In the current context of higher education, there are elements of the political philosophy in almost every university's delivery mode.

Figure 9.2: Coherence of contexts of universities, philosophies, shades of service and Service University models (originated from this research study).



9.6 IMPLICATION FOR ACADEMIC FREDOM

Academic freedom is one of the controversial and protean concepts in higher education that can be used in different ways to support or dismiss arguments about the nature and extent of the freedom of the academia and universities due to its fluid and flexible nature. According to Russell (1993), academic freedom has caused confusion because of its medieval origin, which predates all current meanings. The concept is generally understood as the right of academics to choose a problem for investigation, conduct research, teach their subjects of choice without undue or unreasonable interference from any outside control. It involves the rights to engage in the entire process of knowledge production and its dissemination, including what may (should) be taught and how it may (should) be taught. Berdahl (1990: 171-2) defines academic freedom as "that freedom of the individual scholar in his/her teaching and research to pursue truth wherever it seems to lead without fear of punishment or termination of employment for having insulted some political, religious or social orthodoxy".

A feature of the debate on academic freedom has most often been linked to and centred on the rights of academic staff and rarely critically looking at the accompanying duties and rights of others such as students (Barnett, 1990). Academic freedom should not only be the preserve of only those who are deemed competent to exercise such a right, but it should as a matter of course, include students because students have certain rights within the academic arena such as the right to learn without institutional or governmental direction or indoctrination.

The freedom of universities, academics and students is an important ligament to ensure the well-being of the university as a site for higher learning and critical discourse. It is indeed a necessary ingredient that enables the university to carry out its traditional functions of critical scholarship and any new functions that may emerge as a result of social dynamics. In sum, academic freedom enables universities to act as constructive critiques of society; generators of new knowledge; repositories for current knowledge; environments for its (knowledge) study and transmission; and the training of students.

How does academic freedom settle with the cases of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies? First of all, the question of academic freedom emerged during the analysis of the research data and it thus became necessary to conduct a reflective discussion of it (academic freedom) in the contexts of the two cases. If academic freedom is to be understood as the rights of academics to conduct research and to teach the subjects of their choices without undue or unreasonable interference from outside control, then academic freedom is constrained, to some extent, at Middlesex University and University for Development Studies. On the one hand, academics at Middlesex and UDS have some freedom to conduct research in any area provided that the findings are peer reviewed and published to strengthened the universities' publication records, although they are encouraged to bid for funded research projects that could bring in money. This may be interpreted, in simple terms, to mean that academics have the freedom to research into areas of their choices. On the other hand, the formulation of mission statements at both universities that guide their respective direction could be analysed as constraints on what academics can and cannot do. For instance, at University for Development Studies, there is evidence that lecturers are adhering strictly to the provision in the mandate to the detriment of their personal choice; this can be understood from the following statements by two academics:

"You know, we have the mandate, the mandate of the various courses have been formulated already...If you are coming to lecture a course, you get the mandate and then you prepare the course outline to achieve the goal or objective of the mandate..."

"One reason is that some of us [some members in this department] are sidelined because we advocate for the inclusion of some topics in the syllabus which are not in the mandate... [a question on kind of topics advocated for]...those theories that form the bedrock of our subject..."

Similarly, at Middlesex University, there is indication that one of the important considerations in the development and validation of programmes is the demand component rather than the interest or choice of academics, for example an academic noted:

"Ok...we have five curriculum groups...a bunch of the curriculum is dictated...by our understandings of the demands; well, our understandings of things like the economy, our understandings of things like the world of work for the students."

This consideration may be an influence of the University's corporate plan; in this regard, an academic stated:

"...related to this [the University's mission statement] is the vision of the school;...we work towards becoming a leading centre in the delivery of challenging business management and allied programmes to diverse students and clients who contribute in business and the community".

From the above, it seems that academic freedom operates in the area of research but not teaching; academics do not necessarily teach the topics of their choice, they adhere to those areas that are supposedly expected to attract students for their fees. However, if academic freedom is analysed from three standpoints: institutional autonomy; the freedom of the academia or professor (*Lehrfreiheit*); and the freedom of the student (*Lernfreiheit*), a different interpretation could be made. The right of higher education institutions to appoint academic staff, set academic standards and admit students into programmes of study is referred to as institutional autonomy; which is a right conferred on Middlesex and UDS. This right is distinct from the freedom conferred on academics to freely research into any area of interest and to teach their subjects without any undue interference from any outside control, and the freedom conferred on students to study any subject of their choice in any university they choose. McGuinness (2002) has identified three dimensions or levels in which academic freedom operates: Academic freedom at the individual level; academic freedom at the institutional level; and balancing the individual rights and the rights of the institution. However, a fourth important dimension is the balancing of the different freedoms identified in the university with various rights in the external context of the university, for example the rights of the tax payer who funds the university to know how the university is doing.

Based on the above dimension, at Middlesex University, although programmes are claimed to be tailored towards the needs of students, they (students) enrol into modules and programmes that are pre-planned and are expected to follow them. This is similar in UDS (students follow pre-planned courses), but differ in the sense that programmes are planned based on the needs of Northern Ghana rather than individual students. The Universities seem to exercise greater autonomy in deciding what students should study and what programmes to be taught; a case in mind is the removal of History at Middlesex University despite the fact that there were students (though few) registered for the subject and academics teaching it. The academic freedom of the students and the academics involved could be deemed as flouted. However, it can be argued that Middlesex has a responsibility to ensure that it safeguards its financial interest in order to guarantee its future; it has to demonstrate that its existence is worth the money spent on it, by working to meet the state's policies on higher education such as widening participation. In the same way, the UDS has a responsibility to live up to the legal instrument that brought it into being by adhering to policies and practices that reflect (seem to) the needs and challenges of Northern Ghana.

On the contrary, it may be logical to argue that the concept of autonomy, whether at the institutional or individual (students and academics) level seem to be rhetoric rather than a reality. The actions and inactions of both Middlesex and University for Development Studies may be influenced by external pressures (state and/or the market), putting their rights to set academic standards in jeopardy. As being categorised under service universities, it could imply that the autonomy of institutions and the academic freedom of academics and students are likely to erode under the service university concept due to the situation that requires higher education institutions to serve its community, state and market in radical ways to guarantee financial sustainability or bring about development.

A reflection of the situation at Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies seems to indicate that all is not too well with academic freedom. Although the question of academic freedom may not really feature as problematic, institutional mission and vision statements, the process of formulation, delivery and evaluation of academic programmes as well as their research activities indicate that high premium is placed on catering for the needs of the market and/or the community. This may directly and/or indirectly limit the freedom of the academic staff on what they teach and what research they engage in. According to Peters and Olssen (2005: 46-7) "the general trend has been for a process of de-professionalisation of academic labour, which negatively impacts on their authority as professionals – in relation to all areas of their role". Taking the UDS School of Medicine and Health Sciences as an example, students pursuing medicine are compelled to study community related courses in place of some traditional courses related to medicine, which has resulted in some students writing petitions for a change.

Despite this view, some writers maintain that in the current context, institutional autonomy and academic freedom are still possible (Tjeldvoll, 2002; Clark, 2004; Peters and Olssen, 2005). Tjeldvoll (2002) argues that despite the potential threats of the service university concept to academic freedom, it is possible to maintain academic freedom 'due to the strong academic legacy imbedded in western academics' identity' and the advanced global communication technology that gives individual academics the freedom to involve in independent academic endeavours of their choice. This is particularly true to some extent in the case of Middlesex University, academics may decide to leave an institution all together if they think their academic freedom is infringed, for example a professor working with the National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership had to leave because it was thought that 'her' work schedule did not 'properly reflect' 'her' contract. Tjeldvoll acknowledges the emergence of different scenarios depending on the extent to which the challenging context affects universities; some universities could go bankrupt, others turning into knowledge enterprises while others an academic service university. Again, this analysis is made in the context of Western interpretation and might not be applicable in a non-western context like the UDS, because higher education has not got a long history in Ghana and Northern Ghana in particular, hence there is no academic legacy embedded. Apart from this, communication technology is not advanced in this context and still relay on basic means of academic communication.

Similarly, it can be argued that although it may be erroneous to either say that the freedom of the academia no longer exists or ever existed in its pure form, there is the possibility that academics may thrive well in the new 'commodified' environment. Peters and Olssen (2005: 46) state that the situation could still provide opportunities for academics to "redesign their courses whereby their chosen areas of classical expertise and interest can be incorporated into a new programme with 'market-appeal'" or developmental appeal? Again, even though this may be true in the cases of Middlesex University and UDS, it is cast within the context of Western interpretation. There is evidence in the UDS were some lecturers add items of interest which are not in the mandate, for example a respondent stated:

"I don't have any hand but normally the mandate is there...but as a lecturer you look through some of the broad topics and at times you can add something which may not be found in the mandate but which you think may be relevant to the course or for the students..."

Despite these possibilities, creating a balance between institutional autonomy, academic freedom and the rights and expectations of the society and market forces is essential in creating an ideal service university, which could be a viable alternative in the current dilemma. Until the situation fully unfolds itself, the potential threat of the current context of higher education will continue to be debated upon, but whatever the outcome may be, a new form of university will be born for the twenty first century.

9.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has made an insightful comparison between Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies. The comparison indicates that although there has been convergence in their views of the place of service in the academic life of the university, different contextual factors have accounted for that. Apart from this, analysis of field data shows that there are varied dimensions of interpretation of the concept (Western/non-Western, public/private, direct/indirect and rhetoric/non-rhetoric). In addition, the finding has enabled the development of a model to explain the coherence of contexts of universities, philosophies, shades of service and service university models. A discussion is also presented to understand implications of interpretations of the service concept for academic freedom; although academic freedom seems to be threatened within the service university enterprise, the ability of Middlesex and UDS to identify these threats and work towards reducing their effects is important in guaranteeing their sustainability as higher education institutions. Service is a complex concept; its understanding and interpretation tied to contextual dynamics. Higher education institutions remain organisations or communities thriving within in larger contexts (macro-organism) and living organisms (micro-organism) that are sensitive and responsive (whether consciously or unconsciously, directly or indirectly) to a large degree the changes that occur or are occurring within their macro-organisms. The ability of university institutions to deal effectively and decisively with the challenges to remain relevant centres of critical scholarship and at the same time respond to the needs of society is crucial.

CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSION

10.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is the concluding part of this thesis; it is aimed at presenting an overview of the study, discussing and critiquing the concept of service based on the evidence gained from the fieldwork. It will also examine possibilities of an 'ideal service university' and contributions this research has made as well as discuss the limitations and further research.

10.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

This research study set out to examine the concept of service in the university context with the view of understanding its place in the academic life and providing a new interpretation to it. To achieve this objective, the study has been located in two interrelated conceptual underpinnings: the moderate constructivist and critical pluralistic perspectives that served as a guide and a window through which the service concept is understood. Furthermore, it is designed as a qualitative study, which used documents, interviews and artefacts as methods to generate data. An important methodological characteristic of the study is the use of two interrelated approaches: direct and indirect. The direct concerned presenting the views of individual academics about the place of service in the university through interviews, and the indirect involved the use of interviews, institutional policy documents and artefacts to gain information (that does not directly answer the question) for further analyses to understand the place of service. Also designed as a comparative study, it has used data from three interrelated levels: the macro, intermediary and micro representing general literature sources, national/regional/local sources and institutional sources respectively. This, to a very large degree, has provided rich information through which a relatively better understanding of the place of service in the academic life of the university is achieved.

The concept of 'service' has had a wide range of meanings depending on who uses it, how it is used and in what context it is used. In the context of the university, it has been viewed differently. While some see it as one of the functions of higher education; others understand it as an 'inverted donut' supporting the core activities; administrative; customer service;

civic duty or collegial support. Based on an objective to understand the place of the concept in the university, this study has found that service is a concept that represents all the core activities of the university: teaching, research and community engagement and entrepreneurial. It represents the sum total of all core activities of the university due to the interactions and influences of the interests of stakeholders such as government, industry and students on the policies and practices. The policies and practices seemed to be framed around meeting the needs of these stakeholders; hence it may be seen as services to them (stakeholders). Analyses of literature on higher education, overview of some key national policy documents of the UK and Ghana, and examination of institutional policies and practices at Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies provided evidence to arrive at the finding.

The evidence that forms the bases for this conclusion range from academics direct opinion that suggest that service is a broader concept that involves the core activities of the university to indirect evidence such as current literature on higher education, national policies and university policies and practices of core activities. Most of the respondents in each university think that service is a concept that represents the core activities. Furthermore, contemporary literature suggests that the changing context of higher education is influencing universities to reorient their modes of delivery to reflect the changes. The Mode 2 knowledge Production assumption is an example that demonstrates the present changes in which knowledge is produced in the context of application, although later analysis found lapses in the assumption. In addition, national policies on higher education in both United Kingdom and Ghana suggest that they are directed towards making the delivery serve the needs of society. Apart from this, policies guiding the core activities (teaching, research and outreach) in both Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies suggest that the interests and expectations of stakeholders play an important role in shaping them.

Using literature sources, a classification was made of possible emerging service university types (entrepreneurial, developmental and for-profit institutions). Service universities direct their core activities towards satisfying specific needs of stakeholders. Current literature on the service university concept limits its scope to those universities that sell knowledge-based services to clients with the aim of generating funds to augment unstable and insufficient state sources. This is usually the case of higher education institutions in more developed countries. However, the finding of this study indicates that the prerequisite for university going service is not necessarily to sell out knowledge with the aim of generating extra funds to supplement traditional sources, but its service orientation may be based on the desire to act as an engine for developing a particular community. It also shows that although the emergence of service universities are more likely in developed contexts, possibilities also exist in developing contexts for its emergence. The cases of Middlesex University and the University for Development Studies demonstrate this. Like most universities in more developed countries such as in the United Kingdom and in the United States, Middlesex University's mode of delivery suggests a service model that is entrepreneurial oriented in which the policies guiding the practice of its core academic activities are influenced to a large extent by the interest of stakeholders such as government and industry. In contrast, although located in a developing context, the University for Development Studies mode of delivery demonstrates service to its community, but developmentally-oriented in which its service provision is not intended to generate income despite facing enormous financial challenges. Nevertheless, there are specific practices within higher education such as service learning, study service and community service that are associated with both the teaching and community engagement domains of university activities.

Apart from this, this study has developed a conceptual framework of service engagement of the university aimed at concretely visualising the level of coherence of service engagement to philosophies of higher education, contextual dynamics and emerging models of service university identified, using a combination of data sources from literature and evidence from fieldwork. The model is an attempt to present an organised case for the state of service engagement of universities, which is open to further development to reflect contemporary and emerging issues.

An important conclusion drawn from the evidence is that university institutions seem to be changing; the traditional academic teaching and research functions are increasingly being adjusted to reflect contemporary demands of society, whether in the real sense or as rhetoric. This development raises series of questions that are related to the impact such changes will have on higher education institutions and their future as centres for higher learning and critical thought. Contrasting views have been expressed regarding this: one diminishing and another enhancing. However, the reality is that knowledge is increasingly becoming central in contemporary everyday life, permeating into every aspect of society's activity. This therefore, puts universities in a crucial position to reflect the realities and at the same time maintain the traditional legacy as centres of critical thought.

10.3 THE SERVICE CONCEPT: A CRITICAL REVIEW

Notwithstanding this finding (summarised above), how accurate will it be to understand the concept based on the lines of interpretation suggested in this study? To start with, although there are elements of Middlesex and UDS offering concrete and direct service to its communities, the interpretation of the concept has been largely opportunistic and rhetoric. Taking Middlesex University for example, though aspects of its core activities such as work-based learning studies, health and education related programmes may be interpreted as direct service to its community; the dimension of interpretations seems to be opportunistic, directed towards satisfying its financial interest. In its corporate plan it claims to be aimed at

'...providing challenging academic programmes underpinned by innovative research, scholarship and professional practice.'

This claim could be best described as vague and propaganda directed towards attracting students because majority of the lecturers interviewed said that they were overwhelmed with teaching commitments that they had no time to actively involve in research. This creates doubts about the claim that its academic programmes are guided by innovative research and scholarship when in fact a number of lecturers have no time to conduct research or reflect on their practices and use relevant research finding to inform them. In another vein, the University for Development Studies interpretation of the concept has a rhetoric constituent despite the argument that it is working against all odds to get its activities going. Its mission statement seems clear and robust about what its service intentions are, for example it is to:

"blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of Northern Ghana, in particular, and the country as a whole" (GOG, 1992).

However, this objective seems to be vague as it is being interrupted by the lack of resources to pursue its plans of 'constructive interaction' with the 'poor, disadvantage and marginalised areas' of Northern Ghana, thus reducing it to the usually rhetoric.

Secondly, although the concept of 'service' per se is not new in the Western context of higher education, its current use, illustrated in the assumption that it is a new function of the university distinct from the core activities of teaching and research seems to be restrictive and narrow. As pointed out in Chapter Four when examining practices related to service in higher education, the concept has been used variously to mean academic activities usually within the teaching and learning process that are practically related to the needs of a university's catchment's communities using terminologies such as 'Study Service' and 'Service Learning'. Similarly, historically, universities have operated within a context not in a vacuum; their core activities reflecting their contexts (whether for the interest of the Church, State or individuals). Hence, higher education core activities have always been a form of service – direct or indirect, though in varying degrees and with different clientele needs at given times. The trilogy assumption seems to be basically influenced by increasing interaction between universities and industry encouraged by governments' policies and competition typical of Western contexts, for example UK government policies encourage universities to interact with industry supported by project-based incentives. Such interactions are sometimes referred to as the 'third stream' which has been summarily generalised as the emerging service function of higher education in disregard to other services provided by universities. Middlesex University has some collaborative links with business in areas of research, for example the Centre for Enterprise and Economic Development Research (CEEDR) at Middlesex University Business School (MUBS) has research collaborations with the Small Business Services in UK, and one of the completed projects is 'Measuring enterprise impacts upon deprived areas'. At the same time the University also provides service to local councils and public organisations through offering university places to qualified applicants (towards achieving the objective of the policy of widening participation), and supply of its newly train teachers to local schools in the Boroughs of Barnet, Enfield, Haringey.

Thirdly, there have been a number of propositions illuminating the characteristics of the 'service' or 'contemporary' universities discussed in Chapter Four and summarised in Table 4.2 (See also Gibbons et al, 1994; Cummings, 1999; Tjeldvoll, 2000). Although some of the assumptions are true of contemporary universities if analysed based on the evidence from Middlesex and UDS, for example teaching and learning is organised around programmes rather than disciplines as in the 'traditional' form of delivery, increased collaboration with industry, government and society, extended access to diverse learners with regards to social class and occupation; many are not necessarily applicable. One of such propositions is that contemporary universities do not depend mainly on state for funds but get their funding from diverse sources like the State and industry. This assumption may not be completely true in the case of University for Development Studies; according to evidence, the University depends entirely on government subvention to meet its budgetary needs, for example a respondent stated:

"...We can not also make money from the NGOs who come to help us do our work that is why our financial situation is precarious. At present we depend solely on the government for funding, which is not even enough to meet our annual budget, this is really a serious problem...But we still must have to do something, a form of business"

If the proposition is also to be analysed from the Western interpretation of the service concept (as its assumption seems to be based on this) particularly taking cognisance of the current situation as discussed in Chapter Four, an evident problem would be that almost every university, be it traditional or non-traditional, now exhibit common characteristics. For instance, contrary to the claim that it is only contemporary universities who usually use flexible modes of delivery, diverse modes of delivery are now employed by both traditional and non-traditional higher education institutions due to improve communication technologies, increased collaboration with government, industry and society due to government policies that invariably leads to diverse sources of funding.

Similarly, despite the assumption that service is the sum total of the university core activities, it is important to note that in some cases the policies and practices of universities are attempts to response to the concerns of policy makers and public concerns. As far as specific professional training programmes such as teaching and nursing are concerned, university service agenda to the society could be seen as a reality. However, to some extent, university policies and practices reflect the needs of society and industry in theory, but in practice, these sometimes do not, because there are instances, especially in the UK and particularly in developing countries, where industry has bemoaned the unpreparedness of young graduates to meet its demand (see Crebert et al, 2004). According to a report by Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA, 2006) a significant percentage of graduates fresh from universities would need to undergo some training to meet the demands of the job market. The report adds that another significant percentage of graduates go into jobs that are not related to the programmes they do in the university. Although, this may not necessarily imply that university programmes do not reflect the needs of society, it nonetheless shows the misfit of some programmes to the needs of stakeholders.

10.4 TOWARDS AN IDEAL SERVICE UNIVERSITY, A GENERAL REFLECTION

The influences of the present context on the nature of the university in the twenty-first century cannot be underestimated. This is exemplified in the cases of Middlesex University and University for Development Studies through their definition of their identities as institutions that tailor their activities towards serving their respective communities. While there may be confusion and uncertainty about what constitutes 'real service', Middlesex and UDS continue to base their institutional policy directions on it, mainly influenced by factors within their contexts. The boundary-line between the universities and their social institutions (public, industry) seem to becoming invisible, for example work-based learning at Middlesex and the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme at UDS demonstrate the blurring with business and local communities respectively; thus showing a political philosophical orientation.

How should Middlesex and UDS organise and relate within their evolving contexts to meet the challenges of meeting the needs and aspirations of society while ensuring that they remain higher education institutions: a place for 'critical scholarship'? A conceptual idea of an 'Ideal University' suggested here refers to the university that is able to acknowledge, and meet current challenges of its context by defining itself within the critical pluralistic philosophy in which it creates a balance between craving for academic excellence and making its delivery reflect the needs of society. This type of university may be similar to the 'academic service university' suggested by Tjeldvoll (1998) and the 'reasonable university' by Barnett (2003). The discussion here will be to put forward general recommendations rather than giving specific ones.

Firstly, for Middlesex University and University for Development Studies to be able to achieve a critical balance between serving and maintaining critical scholarship, they should try as much as possible to avoid what Barnett terms 'undue commitment'. Barnett (2003:

183) defines undue commitment as “a degree of commitment that blocks off counter-views and, thereby, diminishes not just reason in that locale but also human being itself”. Although, the two universities claim to be committed to serving the needs and aspiration of their respective (defined) communities, such ideological stance should not be taking to undue extremes such that it prevents other contrary or contesting views to nurture. Such commitments are reflected in their mission statements, policies and practices regarding teaching, research and/or community engagement and entrepreneurial activities. The University for Development Studies’ absolute commitment both in policy and in practice to the development of deprived societies of Northern Ghana and the country as a whole reflects some positive characteristics of a university located in a developing context; however, alternative views are suppressed in favour of the policy commitment of the institution, which could be a recipe for disaster for critical thinking. The UDS and its context is not an island, but operate within a global context. Hence, it is equally important not only to recognise and acknowledge the current global dynamics but to factor in these issues into its policy agenda to keep abreast with the times. In another vein, the commitment of Middlesex to the provision of academic programmes that reflects the needs of students could suppress other areas, which do not immediately reflect students’ expectations; an example of effects of such commitments was the withdrawal of History from the University’s subjects and the mass ‘voluntary redundancy’ exercise that saw many academics being retired against their will.

Secondly[32], the view and commitment of university leadership can be important in creating a type of university, which is anchor on the critical pluralistic philosophy. Although the evolving knowledge economy coupled with government policies are seen as major driving forces pushing most universities towards utility and market-oriented delivery, there are still some allowances within such policy-lines, which can be exploited by university leadership to create an ideal service university. Leaders, who are committed to creating an ideal service university, can work within this framework to achieve. Against this backdrop, the quality and creativity of the Vice Chancellor is particularly important; unfortunately, in some cases the election and appointment of university leadership is influenced directly or indirectly by political undertones rather than quality. A leader of good quality and creativity should be able to create a ‘reasonable’ institutional atmosphere (Institutional reasonableness) rather

[32] For ethical reasons, the discussion here is more general to maintain anonymity.

than an institutional atmosphere with reason (Barnett, 2003). A university that is guided by reasons will tend to unduly commit its policies and practices to the specific reasons it believes in, thereby suppressing any contrary reasons. However, a university that is guided by 'reasonableness', creates an atmosphere which acknowledges and respects diverse views. Such an atmosphere nurtures and contains 'tolerance, interactive community, providing space for new academic pursuits and ideas' (Ibid).

Thirdly, the issue of adequate funding is certainly an important factor to determine the level at which Middlesex and UDS remain relevant institutions. They should acknowledge the demands of their contexts, interact and work with their stakeholders in the most responsible and appropriate manner. This interaction should be an interdependent one, at the same time ensuring that they remain independent and critical over the type and nature of activities they will involved in. They should not bow down absolutely to the demands of market forces and other utilitarian-driven interests, but should negotiate to achieve a balance interest: a balance between critical scholarship and utilitarian interest. This will ensure that they maintain themselves as centres for diverse views and at the same time generating the needed funds to enhance their activities. In addition, Middlesex and UDS should create balance between going all out to commercialise/community-orient their intellectual properties and involving in critical academic activities that do not necessarily bring in funds or reflect local needs. The University for Development Studies should build serious relationship and collaborations with its stakeholders especially, the state and development organisations (local, national and international) commonly referred to as non-governmental organisations (NGOs) who could financially support it to pursue its developmental goals as well as opening opportunities for the University to engage in other fields of academic importance. The head should also set good examples with regards to the use of university resources for personal fame or interest

Lastly, the motivation and quality of the academic heartland (academics) in universities can be important in the development of an ideal service university. What is good remuneration and good condition of service is relative and dependant on the context in which it is viewed, although influenced to some extent by the forces of globalisation and the concept of a 'global village'. Whatever the notion and scope of motivation, academics requires some level of motivation to keep them in good shape (mental and physical) as well as keep them on moderate levels in the advancing and enticing global knowledge market. Quality is an ambiguous term which is dependent on the entity in which it is used: universities and stakeholders. At Middlesex University, the quality of academics is determined by their qualifications and the number of research grants won among other things. Quality in this instance should be based on the individual academics qualification and level of criticality: critical of oneself, critical of knowledge and critical of the world (Barnett, 1997). In summary, the ideal service university is illustrated in the following words of Eric Ashby:

"Universities...have generally had ambivalent relations with their surrounding societies – both involved and withdrawn, both servicing and criticising, both needing and being needed. Eric Ashby identified the central dilemma of this ambivalence: a university "must be sufficiently stable to sustain the ideal which gave it birth and sufficiently responsive to remain relevant to the society which supports." (Berdahl et al, 1999: 4).

10.5 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

Research into the 'service concept' within the current higher education dispensation is relatively little, limited and to some extent in a developing stage, yet service remains a central concern to almost all universities and their stakeholders or partners today. As the nature and effects of the current increasing orientation of universities policies and practices towards the interest of stakeholders such as industry and government remains unclear both in the short-term and in the long-term, an understanding of this service orientation is likely to offer valuable insight into dealing effectively with its negative effects and improving its positive aspects. Current research on the service concept falls short of linking the entire analysis to the philosophical underpinnings of higher education in order to present systematic and well-grounded conceptual explanations; it is conceptually deficient, unstable and lacking organised and coherent analysis. One important contribution this study has made to existing knowledge of the service concept is its coherent explanation and interpretation of the concept linking it to higher education contexts, philosophies, shades of services, the emerging types of universities, and how each of these variables influence the understanding of the concept. The analysis takes cognisance of the current situation in which service has become the watchword in teaching and research due to the link of these activities to the needs and desire of external partners.

In addition, it is able to challenge the existing view of seeing service as a function of the university distinct from teaching and research by combining the views of academics and institutional policies and practices; also national policy perspectives to argue that service is a concept that broadly covers the core activities of the university. Understanding the place of service in the university could provide a framework to foresee its consequences and then appropriate strategies developed to consolidate the positive elements and reducing the likely negative effects.

10.6 LIMITATIONS TO THIS STUDY AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Although the finding of this research suggests that service is a concept that represents all the core activities of the university both in policy and in practice, it may be difficult to generalised it to cover all contexts because much of the empirical data used to arrive at the conclusion were based on two cases and their contexts; despite some input from general literature. As such, further research may indeed be required in different contexts and institutions to gain more understanding of the phenomenon to be able to make generalisation.

Apart from this, the scope of this research did not allow detailed study of processes involved in policy formulation, implementation and evaluation of core activities which would have provided deeper insight for a deeper understanding of the service concept. Hence, detail study of the processes of policy formulations, its implementation and evaluation of teaching, research and outreach activities of wide range of higher education institutions could enhance the understanding of the current service engagement. Such a study may include detailed examination of the process of formulations of teaching curricula, delivery and evaluation of wide range of disciplines; formulation of research agendas, the research process and evaluation. The nature of institutions' partners (stakeholders) and the type of partnership (levels of influence and mutuality) and the interests guiding the sustainability of the partnership could be interesting areas to provide some rich information about the place of service in the university.

10.6.1 Methodological dilemmas in comparing

Another limitation to this comparative case study worth discussing under a separate section is the methodological and ethical dilemmas encountered in the course of comparing the two cases that had contrasting socio-economic contexts. The first issue was obtaining an 'equivalency' in the amount of data to be generated from each case bearing in mind the differences in availability of up-to-date documentations and nature of social cohesion and interaction between the two contexts. In one of the cases (let's call it Case A for ethical reasons), relevant and up-to-date documents such as reports and newsletters were readily available and accessible (in the internet and departmental bookshelves); arranging and conducting interviews was fairly easy and straightway with very limited or no constraints in most cases due to an effective communication system (emails); and movement to the various sites (campuses) was also fairly easy due to the location of the sites in one city supported by an effective transport system. This situation enhanced the effectiveness and efficiency of the data generation process for this case. In the other case (Case B) a nearly opposite scenario existed. Essential documents such as institutional and national reports related to the case was difficult to obtain, and even if obtained were not up-to-date due to resource constraints; organising interviews was particularly a big challenge as some academics had no email addresses and some of the sites had no access to telephones and internet connections; average distance between the component sites of B was 100 miles with transport connections not regular. This situation impacted on the amount of data generated for comparison. Two strategies were used to deal with this problem: 1) developing a parallel but interrelated data generating method – artefacts; data from institutional material resources such as buildings, equipment, etc that proved effective in unveiling relevant information; and 2) using relevant international comparative databases like the UNDP-Human Development Report (2006) and World Development Report (World Bank, 2006) to generate what may be termed a 'standard data' to back up or bridge the date-variations of documents between cases (more to do with national statistics). Although this seemed to have worked, there is probably a lesson here for potential comparative international research to take cognisance of contextual dynamics at the initial stages in order to factor in appropriate strategies.

Another dilemma had to do with keeping to the research agenda without wilfully trying to judge the quality of institutions delivery of core activities. In one of the cases, an elaborate proposal of this research study, clearly stating its objectives, was requested for. According to them it was a strategy aimed at checking the spate of unscrupulous researchers using the challenges the institution was facing opportunistically for their personal financial gains. It was argued that in most cases such researchers analysed data generated from the institute without taking into consideration of its contextual dynamics. This significantly limited analysis to some extent across the two cases in order to maintain 'equivalency' in the treatment of data. In addition, due to request by specific individual respondents not to include some information (directly) into the final write-up, relevant quotations, which could have thrown more light into some aspects of the analysis, were left out. It was ethically bounding and an uncompromising responsibility to respect the confidentiality of respondents and institutions. Despite this, the information provided insight into underlying factors that greatly enhanced analysis of the data to understand the dimensions of interpretation of the service concept.

10.7 CONCLUSION

As the concluding chapter of this thesis, a summary of the study and its finding has been presented including a critical review of the concept of service and suggested measures through which an 'ideal service university' could be realised and the possibility of further research on the topic. Whether as rhetoric or reality, evidence from fieldwork indicates that service is a broader term that covers all the core activities of the university due to their focus on needs of stakeholders, especially government and industry (Middlesex) and local community (UDS). Despite this, the concept is interpreted in several interrelated dimensions: rhetoric and non-rhetoric, western and non-western, direct and indirect, and public and private. In addition, there is an argument that higher education delivery does not meet the needs of industry in the UK or poor in Ghana, however, the debate as to the service role of the university in the 21st Century is likely to intensify due to the various dimensions in which the concept is viewed. Arguments are likely to be centred on the view of service as linking teaching and research to community needs as in the case of the UDS or increased enrolment of fee paying students and links with businesses as in Middlesex; others may argue along the line of academics help to colleagues, service as administrative activities, as civic duty, or as customer service. In terms of its perception as a function of the university in addition to teaching and research, the concept may continue to be interpreted as a third function of the university, based on the context in which it is viewed.

The position of this study is that, despite the contextual factors influencing Middlesex University and University for Development Studies towards service, it is equally important for them to create a balance between tailoring their deliveries solely towards the utilitarian component to the detriment of critical scholarship. They should be circumspect in their all-out derive towards 'commodification' or community-orientation of their deliveries which pay special attention to clientele or community needs. This means that Middlesex and UDS should strive within the critical pluralistic philosophy of higher education that acknowledges the importance of making higher education delivery reflect the needs and challenges of society and at the same time maintaining their legacy as centres for critical thought, foundations of higher learning and critical discourse.

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APPENDICES

A. CATEGORIES OF INTERVIEWS

Sites of Interview

- Middlesex University (UK, London)
- University for Development Studies (Ghana)

- **Middlesex University**
  - Deans of Schools
  - Director of Middlesex University Research Office (MURO)
  - Directors of Research and Postgraduate Studies
  - Directors of Curriculum
  - Directors of Business Development
  - Director of National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership (NCWBLP)
  - Head of Research, NCWBLP
  - NCWBLP
  - Lecturers/Researchers
  - Middlesex University Innovation

- **University for Development Studies**[33]
  - Deans of Faculties/School
  - Registrars
  - Heads of Departments
  - Director of Centre for Interdisciplinary Research
  - Lecturers/Researchers
  - Coordinator of Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP)

[33] Here some subjects fell within two categories e.g. dean as a lecturer; head of department as lecturer.

B. INTERVIEW SCHEDULES FOR MIDDLESEX UNIVERSITY

Deans/Heads of Departments Interview Schedule: Middlesex University

Faculty/School:..

Interview start time:................................ Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:.. Date of Interview:....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

2. What is the mission of this University?

3. What is the mission of this faculty/school/department?

4. What key activities is the faculty/school/department involved in to achieve its mission?

5. What kind of students do you admit?

Teaching Curriculum

6. How are the curricula of the courses/modules formulated in this faculty/school/department (already made?)?

7. How is curriculum delivered?

8. What is the state of resources that support this?

9. What criteria are used to evaluate the quality of modules/course/programmes in this faculty?

Research

10. What type of research is carried out in this faculty/school/department (basic/applied)?

11. Who formulates research agenda of the faculty/school?

12. What is the state of resources that support research?

13. How is research evaluated?

14. How will you describe the faculty's/school's relationship with other units of the university?

15. How will you describe the faculty's/school's relationship with the community?

16. What criteria are used for staff promotion?

17. What challenges do you face as a Dean?

18. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical Issues

19. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

20. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Director of Middlesex University Research Office (MURO) Interview Schedule

Faculty/School:..

Interview start time:.............................. Interview end time:..................

Interviewer:.. Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting.

2. As the Director of MURO/CIR, what is your duty?

3. What is the mission of this University?

4. What is the mission of MURO/CIR?

5. How is the research agenda of the office formulated?

6. What type of research is conducted (basic, applied or action)?

7. What is the state of resources that support MURO/CIR activities?

8. How will you describe the relations between research in the University and its stakeholders?

9. Do you have research relationship with other educational institutions and/or organisations?

10. How is the quality of research determined?

11. What challenges do you face as a Research Director?

12. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

13. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

14. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Directors of Research and Postgraduate Studies Interview Schedule (and Head of Research, NCWBLP): Middlesex University

Faculty/School:..

Interview start time:............................... Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:... Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting.
2. As a research director/Head of Research what is your duty?
3. What is the mission of this University?
4. What is the research mission of the school?
5. How is the research agenda of the school formulated?
6. What type of research is conducted here (basic, applied or action)?
7. What is the state of resources that support your research?
8. How will you describe the relations between research in the school and the university's stakeholders?
9. Do you have research relationship with other educational institutions and/or organisations?
10. How is the quality of research determined?
11. What challenges do you face as a Research Director?
12. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

13. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

14. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Directors of Curriculum Interview Schedule: Middlesex University

Faculty/School:...

Interview start time:..............................   Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:.......................................   Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

2. As a Curriculum Director what is your duty?

3. What is the mission of this University?

4. What is the teaching mission of the school?

5. How is curriculum formulated in this school (already made?)?

(Follow up with question below if necessary)

6. Do external factors influence curriculum formulation?

7. What is the mode of curriculum delivery?

8. What is the state of resources that support curriculum delivery?

9. What criteria are used to evaluate the quality of the curriculum?

10. How will you describe the relations between the curriculum and the needs of the community?

11. What challenges do you face as a Curriculum Director?

12. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical Issues

13. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

14. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Directors of Business Development Interview Schedule: Middlesex University

Faculty/School:...

Interview tart time:.................................   Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:...   Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

2. As a Director of Business Development what is your duty?

3. What is the mission of this University?

4. What is the process of developing business like?

5. What kind of business do you develop?

6. Who are your business partners?

7. How will you describe your relationship with other entities such as other activities of the school, the university, and other institutions?

8. How will you describe your relationship with the external community (also industry)?

9. What is the state of resources that support your work (human and material)?

10. What criteria are used for your promotion?

11. How do you determine the quality of your work?

12. What challenges do you face as a Business Director?

13. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

14. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

15. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Director of National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership
Interview Schedule: Middlesex University

Faculty/School:..

Interview start time:...............................   Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:.......................................   Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting
2. What is the mission of this University?
3. What is the mission of the National Centre for Work Based Learning Partnership?
4. What key activities is the centre involved in to achieve its mission?
5. What kind of students do you admit?

Teaching Curriculum

6. How is curriculum formulated in this centre (already made?)?
7. How is it delivered?
8. What is the state of resources (human and material) to support curriculum delivery?
9. How is quality of the curriculum determined?

Research

10. What type of research is conducted (basic/applied)?
11. How is the research agenda formulated?
12. What is the state of resources (human and material) to support research?
13. How is quality of research determined?

14. How will you describe the centre's relationship with other entities such as other schools, centres, industry, and community?

15. What challenges do you face as the director of the centre?

16. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

17. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

18. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Lecturers/Researchers Interview Schedule: Middlesex University

Faculty/School:...

Interview start time:................................ Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:... Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

* If respondent is only a researcher move to next section (on research)

2. What is the mission of this University?

Teaching

3. What module(s)/course(s) do you teach? Aims?

4. How is the curriculum of your module/course formulated?

5. What is the mode of curriculum delivery?

6. What is the state of resources that support your work?

7. What criteria do you use to evaluate the quality of a module/course/programme?

8. What are your target communities?

9. Who is your course/module/programme targeted?

10. How will you describe the relations between the courses/modules you teach and the needs of the community?

11. On what basis do you gain promotion?

Researching

* Ask to know whether the respondent involves in some research, if respondent define him/herself as a lecturer.

12. What types of research do you involve in (basic/applied/action)?

13. Who formulates the research agenda?

14. Who are the main players and beneficiaries of your research?

15. What is the state of resources to support your research?

16. How will you describe the relations between your research and the university's stakeholders?

17. How is the quality of your research determined?

18. How are you promoted?

19. What challenges do you face as a lecturer and/or researcher?

20. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

21. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

22. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Middlesex University Innovation (MUI) Interview Schedule: Middlesex University

Faculty/School:...

Interview start time:................................ Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:.. Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

2. As the Manager of Middlesex University Ventures, what is your duty?

3. What is the mission of this University?

4. What is the mission of the MUV?

5. How are the strategic objectives of MUV formulated?

6. What key activities does MUV involve in?

7. What specific business successes have you achieved?

8. How will you describe your relationship with other entities of the university?

9. How will you describe your relationship with the external community (also industry)?

10. What is the state of resources that support your work (human and material)?

11. How do you determine progress of the Venture?

12. What challenges do you face as a Manager?

13. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

14. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

15. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

C. INTERVIEW SCHEDULES FOR UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Deans/Heads of Department Interview Schedule: University For Development Studies

Faculty/School:..

Interview start time:.............................. Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:... Date of Interview:....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

2. What is the mission of this University?

3. What is the mission of this faculty/school/department?

4. What key activities is the faculty/school/department involved in to achieve its mission?

5. What kind of students do you admit?

Teaching Curriculum

6. How are the curricula of the courses/modules formulated in this faculty/school/department (already made?)?

7. How is curriculum delivered?

8. What is the state of resources that support this?

9. What criteria are used to evaluate the quality of modules/course/programmes in this faculty?

Research

10. What type of research is carried out in this faculty/school/department (basic/applied)?

11. Who formulates research agenda of the faculty/school?

12. What is the state of resources that support research?

13. How is research evaluated?

14. How will you describe the faculty's/school's relationship with other units of the university?

15. How will you describe the faculty's/school's relationship with the community?

16. What criteria are used for staff promotion?

17. What challenges do you face as a Dean?

18. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical Issues

19. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

20. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Registrars Interview Schedule: University for Development Studies

Faculty/School:..

Interview start time:................................ Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:... Date of Interview:....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

2. What is the mission of this University?

3. What are your duties as the Registrar of (university/faculty)?

4. What is the mission of this university/faculty/school/?

5. What key activities is the university/faculty/school involved in to achieve its mission?

6. What kind of students do you admit?

Teaching Curriculum

7. How are the curricula of the courses formulated (already made?)?

8. How is curriculum delivered?

9. What is the state of resources that support this?

10. What criteria are used to evaluate the quality of courses/programmes in this university/faculty?

Research

11. What type of research is carried out in this university/faculty/school (basic/applied)?

12. Who formulates research agenda of the university/faculty/school?

13. What is the state of resources that support research?

14. How is research evaluated?

15. How will you describe the university's/faculty's/school's relationship with other units of the university?

16. How will you describe the faculty's/school's relationship with the community?

17. What criteria are used for staff promotion?

18. What challenges do you face as a Registrar?

19. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical Issues

20. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

21. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Director of Centre for Interdisciplinary Research (CIR) Interview Schedule: University for Development Studies

Faculty/School:..

Interview start time:.............................. Interview end time:...................

Interviewer:.. Date of Interview:.....................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting.

2. As the Director of MURO/CIR, what is your duty?

3. What is the mission of this University?

4. What is the mission of MURO/CIR?

5. How is the research agenda of the office formulated?

6. What type of research is conducted (basic, applied or action)?

7. What is the state of resources that support MURO/CIR activities?

8. How will you describe the relations between research in the University and its stakeholders?

9. Do you have research relationship with other educational institutions and/or organisations?

10. How is the quality of research determined?

11. What challenges do you face as a Research Director?

12. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

13. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

14. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Lecturers/Researchers Interview Schedule: University for Development Studies

Faculty/School:...

Interview start time:..............................   Interview end time:..................

Interviewer:...   Date of Interview:...................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting

* If respondent is only a researcher move to next section (on research)

2. What is the mission of this University?

Teaching

3. What module(s)/course(s) do you teach? Aims?

4. How is the curriculum of your module/course formulated?

5. What is the mode of curriculum delivery?

6. What is the state of resources that support your work?

7. What criteria do you use to evaluate the quality of a module/course/programme?

8. What are your target communities?

9. Who is your course/module/programme targeted?

10. How will you describe the relations between the courses/modules you teach and the needs of the community?

11. On what basis do you gain promotion?

Researching

* Ask to know whether the respondent involves in some research, if respondent define him/herself as a lecturer.

12. What types of research do you involve in (basic/applied/action)?

13. Who formulates the research agenda?

14. Who are the main players and beneficiaries of your research?

15. What is the state of resources to support your research?

16. How will you describe the relations between your research and the university's stakeholders?

17. How is the quality of your research determined?

18. How are you promoted?

19. What challenges do you face as a lecturer and/or researcher?

20. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

21. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

22. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

Coordinator for Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP) Interview Schedule: University for Development Studies

Faculty/School:...

Interview start time:..............................   Interview end time:..................

Interviewer:.......................................   Date of Interview:...................

1. Introduction: Clarify the purpose of meeting.
2. As the Coordinator of the TTFPP, what is your duty?
3. What is the mission of this University?
4. What is the mission of the TTFPP?
5. How is the objective of the TTFPP formulated?
6. What activities are involved in the TTFPP?
7. What is the state of resources that support the TTFPP?
8. What criteria do you use to evaluate the quality of the TTFPP?
9. Which are your target communities?
10. How will you describe, from your point of view, the relations between the TTFPP and the needs of the community?
11. What challenges do you face as a Coordinator?
12. What is your view about the assumption that service is a function of the university in addition to the teaching and research functions?

Miscellaneous/Ethical issues

13. Is there anything you might like to add to what has been discussed?

14. Anonymity: Is there anything that we have discussed that one should be particularly very careful about in terms of its use?

D. Table A: Research Study: Activities and Dates

Dates	Activities
January – April 2004	MPhil/PhD Registration
05 April 2005	Transfer from MPhil to PhD
14 – 28 April 2004	A preliminary fieldwork at University of Development Studies (Ghana) to acquaint with its academics and environment
May 2004 – April 2005	Based at Middlesex University: Courses, Conferences
24 April-20 June 2005	Main data generation at University for Developments Studies: Interviews, documentation and artefacts.
August-December 2005	Main data generation at Middlesex University: Interviews, documentation and artefacts.
January - October 2006	Main data analysis, Write-up, Submission